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# SOCIAL EDUCATION

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## CONTENTS

	PAGE
EDITOR'S PAGE . . . . .	305
EGYPT—AND THE CASE FOR "BAGGAGE" . . . . .	<i>Josephine Mayer</i> 307
NINETEENTH-CENTURY EUROPE: LIBERAL OR CON- SERVATIVE? . . . . .	<i>Eugene N. Anderson</i> 313
ARE THE SOCIAL STUDIES SKILL SUBJECTS? . . . . .	<i>John A. Hockett</i> 321
DUPLICATION BETWEEN COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES . . . . .	<i>Allen Y. King</i> 323
INTERRELATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL SUBJECTS . . . . .	<i>Richard W. Van Alstyne</i> 325
TEACHING PRACTICES IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL . . . . .	<i>Harl R. Douglass and Anna V. Filk</i> 330
WORK EXERCISES AND TEST ITEMS, A CONTRAST OF PURPOSE . . . . .	<i>Harriet H. Shoen</i> 333
HAVE YOU READ? . . . . .	<i>Katharine Elizabeth Crane</i> 340
NOTES AND NEWS . . . . .	347
BOOK REVIEWS . . . . .	354
PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED . . . . .	374

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SOCIAL EDUCATION is indexed in EDUCATION INDEX

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## Editor's Page

### PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

LAST month Dr McCutchen and representatives of seven schools now engaged in the eight-year experiment sponsored by the Progressive Education Association described some aspects of the plans and procedures that are being tried. These include wide variations, ranging from attempts to make familiar programs more effective to almost complete departure from the subject matter, materials, and teaching procedures of the past. Such diversity in ways of reaching goals that seem to be common to all the schools is certainly confusing. In this instance, however, there is some reassurance in the knowledge that an elaborate and apparently adequate evaluation will be made. There is some hope that we may eventually know what content, what organization, what procedures best yield desired results, although so many factors are involved, all but impossible to isolate, that endless disagreement, exceptions, and reasons why or why not may also be anticipated.

### PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION STATES ITS CASE

MEANWHILE the Progressive Education Association has published *Progressive Education Advances: Report on a Program to Educate American Youth for Present Day Living*.<sup>1</sup> presenting attractively not only the views and principles against which the Essentialists and a considerable group of New York City teachers (among others) are currently reacting, but

describing the commissions, investigations, and publishing programs now in progress under the Association's auspices.

Although classroom procedures vary it is maintained that in general:

Progressive practices are based upon the beliefs that the development of normal interests precede the imposition of subject matter, that real education grows out of human experiences rather than from the mere acquisition of information from books or the cultivation of skills for deferred needs, that subject matter should be adapted to the individual, that motivated work achieves richer results than passive learning, that the individual is a whole personality who must always be thought of as a whole personality in all educational planning (p. 12).

Gains in more enlightened administration, better teacher cooperation in breaking down artificial barriers between subjects, closer study of individual students, opportunity for following special interests, greater use of the community, a longer school day, closer cooperation of schools and colleges, and the development of an evaluation program are claimed. With these have come greater attention to contemporary civilization, greater continuity of student experience, integration of subjects, unified core courses, elimination of some old content and addition of some new, and a stimulus to creative impulses and to expression. Pupils join in planning work, they investigate more, the teacher becomes a leader and guide.

The statement of objectives and accomplishments, and the account of the various commissions—on the relations of school and college, the secondary school curriculum, human relations, and intercultural relations—is moderate, concerned with ex-

<sup>1</sup> New York: Appleton-Century, 1938. Pp. 70. 25c.

position rather than argument, though as usual adjectives are deftly used—what the Association believes in is "progressive," and subjects are "traditional" as well as divided by "artificial" barriers.

#### CRITIQUE OF PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

**N**EVERTHELESS Boyd H. Bode in his brief but incisive and penetrating assessment of the Progressive Education Association's twenty years of achievement, *Progressive Education at the Crossroads*,<sup>2</sup> declares the movement to be not only the strongest but the most evangelistic in America (p. 1). Though it has contributed much of great and lasting value to American education (p. 3), he finds that it has not recognized the implications of democracy, and he takes exception to many interpretations and applications of the tenets of progressive education.

The many exceptions taken to present applications and practice, vigorously stated and eminently quotable, should not be torn from their context. That they challenge rather sharply the Progressive Education Association's claims for twenty years of achievement can, however, be quickly illustrated.

Of learning by doing, Dr Bode observes that unless it is made clear "in what way doing is related to learning, there is every likelihood that doing will be mistaken for learning and that the ends of education will thus once again meet with frustration" (p. 41). Individualism, he soon adds, "has a tendency to be satisfied if pupils are engaged in happy and interesting activities. It tolerates an incredible amount of whim and bad manners because 'maximum development is tacitly assumed to be controlled from within'" (p. 43).

In an especially rewarding discussion of the doctrine of interest Dr Bode declares that "to interpret the doctrine of interest as meaning that all activity must be motivated by immediate and spontaneous inter-

est is to misrepresent it. . . . The only sure basis for the guidance of interest is to be found in the relation between interest and the need of developing or regaining a unified way of life" (pp. 55, 57). And, in any case, "the purpose of sound education is precisely to emancipate the pupil from dependence on immediate interests. A person cannot remain a baby all his life."

The treatment of "felt needs," of a child-centered curriculum, based on either a study of pupils or of environment and individuals, of education as growth, and of teaching "the child, not the subject," are equally challenging. Readers will find reference to "a certain sentimentality about children" (p. 10), and to "a spirit of anti-intellectualism" (p. 70); a reminder that "the progressive movement has no monopoly on thinking" (p. 77); and, in the remarks on subjects, the assertion that "the pupil must acquire some capacity for thinking as the specialist thinks" (p. 94), that "the possession of scientifically organized matter is of inestimable value, not only as a resource in later life, but as a basis for present thinking" (p. 99).

But if the comments are often sharp—those quoted are no doubt among the sharpest—the reader nevertheless feels that though the surgeon has probed deep and would operate drastically, the case for progressive education principles is strong, and the patient worth saving.

**T**HOSE who plan in education, and those who teach, have available the case for and that against much of what is considered advance practice in American education. If each finds support for what he already believes, he can still look forward to the reports of evaluations now in progress—and no doubt to continuing differences in interpretation and the weighing of values. Both Dr Bode's analysis and the evaluation ought, however, to sharpen issues and to aid educators in selecting from the various values presented.

ERLING M. HUNT

<sup>2</sup> New York: Newson, 1938. Pp. 128. \$1.00.



Egyptian Scribe  
Tallying Negro  
Prisoners (after  
Wilkinson)

## Egypt—and the Case for "Baggage"

JOSEPHINE MAYER

### I

C LAMBERING from history to the *social sciences*, the study of the past has cached along the way some of its most colorful baggage. The abandonment was not deliberate. It came about quite naturally. As related sciences and pseudosciences crept in something had to be discarded; the pack must be kept to a decent weight. Particulars gave way to formulas, personalities to generalizations. Statistics brushed aside the curl of a mustache, the set of a hat. Perhaps this should be so. But the fact remains (or at least the suspicion remains) that while much that is indispensable in understanding human development has been added, much that would

deepen this understanding has been thrown out.

If we believe that in history teaching "the really interesting and essential thing is to enter into and trace the changes that have passed upon the human mind,"<sup>1</sup> we are committed to salvage operations. We must recover the bundles and examine the minutiae. For ideas can not be separated from the people who hold them, and a people can not be perceived unless the particular traits and qualities that distinguish them from all other peoples are thrown into sharp relief. In this process the smallest detail may turn out to be important. Today's ubiquitous sack suit, for example, proclaims the triumph of the bourgeoisie. It furnishes a goodly part of humanity with covering, and provides the modern business man with antecedents as well. According to Miriam Beard,<sup>2</sup> his trousers, and

Teachers who discard detail as they range about in the realm of social science may perhaps be equipped for rapid touring, but they'll not be admitted to some exclusive halls where many like to linger. The author is a teacher in the Lincoln School and instructor in Teachers College, Columbia University.

<sup>1</sup> Viscount Bryce in *World History* (London: Oxford Univ. Press, 1919) says: "To describe the external causes and processes by which material civilization has advanced . . . is possible for a writer of high selective skill and the faculty of condensation. But the really interesting and essential thing, the vital part of history, is to enter into and trace the changes that have passed upon the human mind."

<sup>2</sup> *A History of the Business Man*. New York: Macmillan, 1938, pp. 101-102, 114.

even his drab jacket and stiff hat, derive from that medieval freebooter, the Venetian merchant. The theatre has had a hand in perpetuating his costume. As *Pantalone*, stock comedy figure of the *commedia dell'arte*, he walked the boards arrayed in a strange nether garment borrowed from "his best customers," the Turks and Saracens. Transported to France by a daughter of the Medici, *Pantaloone* amused the aristocrats, won the leading part in Molière's *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme*, survived the revolution, and, grown vastly in dignity and importance, fastened the trouser, emblem of trade, on a complacent world.

**W**HILE the fortunes or misfortunes of traders seem far removed from the life of a poet and saint, there is in either case the same necessity for procuring and using significant detail. And besides, St Francis, son of Messer Piero Bernardone of Assisi, was merchant-born and merchant-bred. Originally he had been destined to carry on his father's business, and to deal in woolen cloth "of diverse colours." The simplicity of his later dealings, his tenderness, his humility, his courage in casting aside "the props of property" and, with his followers, walking propertyless upon the roadways of the world—in short, St Francis himself—is in danger of being lost to us. He disappears beneath the usual discussion of the Franciscan movement and the bare sentences about its originator. There is nothing in them to account for his popularity among countless generations of peasants or the esteem in which he is held today, or to explain him as "the poet who was practically the founder of medieval and therefore of modern art."<sup>3</sup> The brief notice that he loved all creatures even "brother worm," that he wrote songs of praise to God in the Italian vernacular, that his "Canticle of the Sun" has come down to us, that he sometimes pretended to be playing the viol

<sup>3</sup> *Giotto, The Legend of St. Francis. The Assisi Frescoes copied by E. M. Cowles with a foreword by G. K. Chesterton.* London: Dent, 1931, p. 7.

"all the while singing a joyous French song about the Lord" fails to bring him to life because there is no life there. But there is in that joyous French song (if we could only hear it), and in the frescoes which Giotto painted in the churches of Assisi (which we can see), and in the tale of the deal which St Francis made with a rather rough wolf. And in his words: "Praised be my Lord God, with all his creatures, and especially our brother the sun, who brings us the day and who brings us the light; fair is he, and he shines with a very great splendour."

**H**ELEN WADDELL in *The Wandering Scholars*<sup>4</sup> speaks of the furniture of a man's mind. The mind in question was thirteenth century, its furniture classical or pseudo-classical. The style of its chairs and tables does not concern us here, but the type of inquiry does. Delving into men's minds, especially into the minds of men long dead, is a task for scholars. The fragments which they unearth, and which come forth so fresh and dustless, are of immense value in recreating the past. We may say, as did Milton, that they enable us "to be present as it were in every age, to extend and stretch life backward from the womb." In the three hundred years since Milton life has been stretched backward an astonishing distance. Today the man of the Stone Age begins to emerge, and his art (certainly very near his mind and spirit) to gain some acclaim.

Of particular interest, then, is the statement that a forthcoming volume of world history is an account of *peoples* and their *ideas*.<sup>5</sup> Set down before its text are these lines from Walter Pater: "Nothing that has ever interested living men and women can wholly lose its vitality—no language they have spoken, nor oracle beside which they have hushed their voices, no dream which has once been entertained by actual human

<sup>4</sup> New York: Holt, 1934, p. ix.

<sup>5</sup> Carl Becker and Frederic Duncalf, *Story of Civilization*, to be published by Silver, Burdett, New York, in May, 1938.

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minds, nothing about which they have ever been passionate, or expended time and zeal."

THE people of ancient times have suffered most from the vogue for condensation. While the researches of the last century have brought new life to the past, in school texts the results are reduced to pitifully general terms. No summary of what has interested living men and women, no catalogue of their art can be anything but dreary. Too often has Homer been resolved to a bust with a beard, the dramas that excited the Greeks to a compendium of authors and titles. The student would be hard put to it to tell why seven cities claimed great Homer dead.

Yet Homer still lives to those who know his words. T. E. Lawrence, in the foreword to his translation of the *Odyssey*,<sup>6</sup> says of the man: "In four years of living with this novel I have tried to deduce the author from his self-betrayal in the work. I found a book-worm, no longer young, living from home, a mainlander, city-bred and domestic. Married but not exclusively, a dog-lover, often hungry and thirsty, dark-haired . . . he loved the rural scene as only a citizen can. No farmer, he had learned the points of a good olive tree. He is all adrift when it comes to fighting, and had not seen deaths in battle. He had sailed upon and watched the sea with a palpitant concern, seafaring not being his trade. . . . Yet this Homer was neither land-lubber nor stay-at-home nor ninny."

And we can turn to the "book-worm" himself: "'Come, tell me now this also, god-like Homer: what think you in your heart is most delightsome to men?' Homer answered: 'When mirth reigns throughout the town, and feasters about the house, sitting in order, listen to a minstrel; when the tables besides them are laden with bread and meat, and a wine-bearer draws sweet drink from the mixing-bowl and fills the cups: this I think in my heart to be most

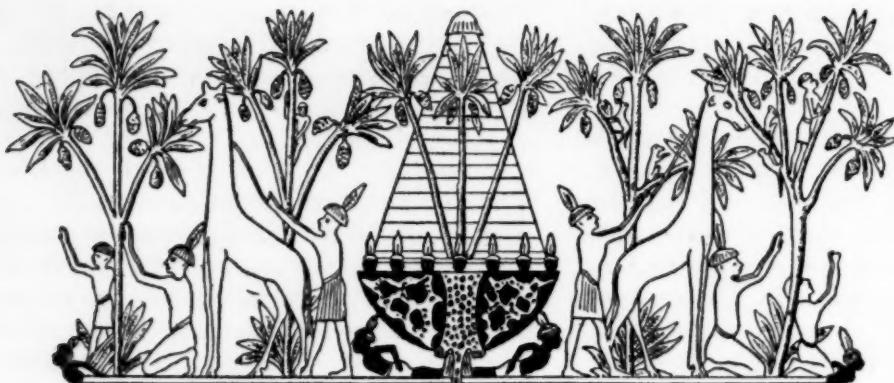
delightsome.'"<sup>7</sup> To get a sense of Homer is not too difficult. It takes time (but not four years), and the conviction that for this Greek and his tale of Troy portrait and paraphrase will not do.

THESE words of Homer do not strike us as strange. Conviviality seems natural in the Greeks. Few of us, however, think of the Egyptians as "a bright merry people who loved wine and music and feasting."<sup>8</sup> And yet they were, as their writings and the paintings that enliven their tombs clearly show. Mummification was not their sole occupation nor even their principal diversion. Neither is *The Book of the Dead*, a collection of magical hocus-pocus, their only contribution to literature. Inventors of the short story as well as the calendar, they were the first people to have a literature of entertainment. Story-tellers held forth in the taverns of Thebes a thousand years before Homer sat sipping his sweet wine. Snatches of fabulous tales shortened the homeward road for thousands who by day toiled to raise the pyramids. The sayings of Ptah-hotep had become proverbial by the time Abraham led his flocks and his family into the land of Canaan. If we place the greatest period of Egyptian literature in the Old Kingdom, as some scholars do, then the height of her writing was reached forty-five hundred years ago. Manners and morals, religion and poetry, medicine and surgery, history and legend, education and philosophy, all are represented in the records recovered for us in recent years. Nor must we rely on these alone for the details that make Egypt live again, for the highly colored reliefs of tombs and temples are equally revealing.<sup>9</sup>

<sup>7</sup> H. G. Evelyn-White, *Hesiod, the Homeric Hymns and Homerica*. London: Heinemann, 1929, p. 573.

<sup>8</sup> T. E. Peet, *A Comparative Study of the Literatures of Egypt, Palestine, and Mesopotamia*. London: Oxford Univ. Press, 1931, p. 7.

<sup>9</sup> The selections from Egyptian writings are taken from *Never to Die*, The Egyptians in Their Own Words, with commentary by Josephine Mayer and Tom Prideaux, to be published by the Viking Press, New York, in May, 1938.



Design from  
the Tomb of  
an Egyptian  
Viceroy of  
Nubia (after  
Lepsius)

## II

**A**CROSS these centuries the Egyptian by his own words reveals himself with startling candor. To the young men of Memphis, Ptah-hotep, vizier of an early Pharaoh, offered shrewd counsel gained through a long and profitable life:

If thou be wise marry. Love thy wife sincerely. Fill her belly and clothe her back. Oil is the remedy for her body. Make glad her heart all thy life. She is a profitable field for her lord.

If thou art a guest at the table of one who is greater than thou, take what he may offer thee as it is set before thee. Fix thy gaze at what is before thee, and pierce not thy host with many glances, for it is an abomination to force thy notice upon him. Speak not to him until he biddeth thee, for one knoweth not what may be offensive; but speak when he addresseth thee, for so shall thy words give satisfaction.

Bend thy back to him that is over thee, to thy superior in the administration; thy house shall abide by reason of his substance, and thy recompense shall come in due season. Evil is he who resisteth his superior, for one liveth only so long as he is gracious.

Ptah-hotep was third in the line of Egypt's great sages. Before him came Imhotep, versatile vizier of King Zoser, and Prince Harzozef, son of the mighty Khufu. Their words have been lost, but perhaps it was their thoughts he uttered in this advice

to Egypt's intelligentsia: "Be not arrogant because of thy knowledge, and be not puffed up for that thou art a learned man. Take counsel with the ignorant as with the learned, for the limits of art cannot be reached, and no artist is perfect in his excellence. Goodly discourse is more hidden than the precious green-stone, and yet it is found with slave girls over the millstones."

**R**EFLCTING what Breasted calls "a carnival of destruction," the writings of the Middle Kingdom show a tendency towards pessimism. The chaos that followed the breakup of the Old Kingdom turned the author in on himself as it turned the common man to the protection of petty princes. Gone was the faith in unassailable monarchs so marked in the time of Khufu and Khafre, and the confidence with which an earlier Egypt faced the new day. Revolution had left its mark; the cry of this writer was the cry of all Egypt:

Behold, he that possessed wealth now spendeth the night athirst;  
He that begged of him his dregs is now a possessor of wine-vats.  
Behold, they that possessed clothes are now in rags;  
He that wove not for himself now posseseth fine linen.  
Behold, he that had no shade is now the possessor of shade;  
The possessors of shade are in the blast of the storm.

Behold, he that had no knowledge of the lyre now posseseth a harp;  
 He to whom none sang now vaunteth the Goddess of Music.

Behold, cattle are left to stray, there is none to herd them;

Each man must fetch for himself those that are branded with his name.

Behold, he that was bald and had no oil Has become a possessor of jars of sweet myrrh.

Behold, she that had no box is now a possessor of furniture;

She that beheld her face in water now posseseth a mirror.

Behold, noble ladies go hungry;  
 What was prepared for them goes to sate the butchers.

Verily the children of princes are dashed against the walls.

**O**UT of these evil days comes an early consideration of "to be or not to be." The decision of a man to destroy himself is vigorously opposed by his soul or *ba*. Death is evil, it declares, and survivors lax about furnishing the deceased with the necessary supplies of food and drink. "Those weary ones who die upon the river-bank have none to care for them," the *ba* argues. "And the water and the sun's heat alike destroy them; and the fishes of the river's bank have converse with them. Enjoy thyself and forget care." But the man longs for death:

Death is in my eyes today  
 Like the scent of myrrh,  
 Like sitting beneath the boat's sail on a breezy day.

Death is in my eyes today  
 Like the smell of water-lilies,  
 Like sitting on the bank of drunkenness.

Death is in my eyes today  
 Like the desire of a man to see his home  
 When he hath passed many years in captivity.

**E**GYPTIANS were frank about the joys of soldiering, or at least the school-masters were. When the period of Empire and the "age of chivalry" descended on Egypt, the teacher's task became increasingly difficult. Then, as now, it was hard to hold boys in school against the lure of a uniform and the prospect of glory. While the officers of Egypt practised with their great bows in full sight of the squatting youngsters, the class was forced to write: "Come, let me tell thee of the woes of the soldier. He is hungry, his body is worn out, he is dead while yet alive. His commanders say to him, 'Forward, brave soldier, win for thyself a good name.' But he is half-unconscious. In the village are his wife and children, but he dieth and doth not reach it."

With the Empire and its line of conquerors came the high point of the martial song, and, quite naturally, of the love lyric. Frank delight in physical beauty and a heightened enjoyment of nature are characteristic of the Egyptian lovers. The "brother," or lover, prays to the Golden Hathor, goddess of beauty and pleasure, as a later lover might have prayed to Aphrodite; while the "sister" in the presence of her beloved inhales the breath of Amon. The "sister" speaks:

There are *saamu*-flowers in my wreath.  
 One is uplifted in their presence.  
 I am thy first sister.  
 I am unto thee like the acre  
 Which I have planted with flowers  
 And all manner of sweet-smelling herbs;  
 And in it is a pool which thy hand has  
 digged.  
 In the cool of the North Wind,  
 It is a lovely place where I walk,  
 Thine hand upon mine, and my body  
 satisfied,  
 And my heart glad at our going together.

**B**Y 1100 B.C. the end of Egypt's long run was in sight. Although it was scarcely fifty years since Ramses III had put down

the turbulent sea peoples and reasserted the suzerainty of Egypt in Syria, an envoy of the Two Lands now stood powerless before Zakar-Baal, Phoenician prince of Byblos. Wenammon had been sent to Syria to fetch timber for "Userhet," the god Amon's sacred barge. But no longer could a representative of Egypt command respect from the potentates of Syria, or secure cedar from the forests of the Lebanon. Wenammon was haled before the prince:

Zakar-Baal: On what business hast thou come?

Wenammon: I have come after the timber for the great and august barge of Amon-Re, king of gods. Thy fathers did it, and thou wilt also do it.

Zakar-Baal: I am neither thy servant nor am I the servant of him that sent thee. If I cry out to the Lebanon, the heavens open, and the logs lie here on the shore of the sea. What then are these miserable journeys which they have had thee make?

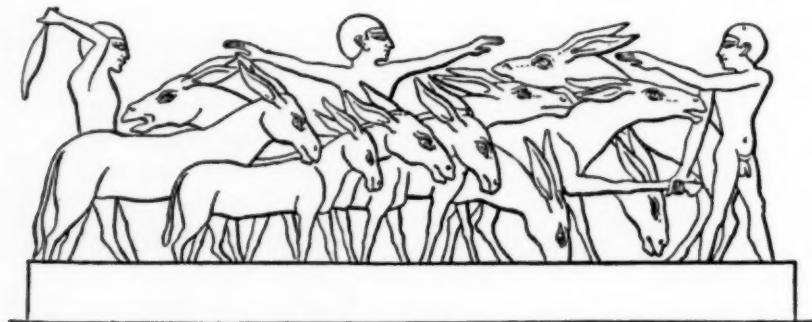
Wenammon: O guilty one! They are no miserable journeys on which I am. There is no ship upon the river which Amon does not own. For his is the sea, and his is the Lebanon of which thou sayest, "It is mine." He is indeed what he once was,

while thou standest and bargainest for the Lebanon with Amon, its lord.

In spite of his faith in Amon and Egypt, the messenger of Pharaoh left Byblos without the timbers. Pursued by the outraged prince of Dor, he was helped out of the harbour by Zakar-Baal. Escaping to Cyprus, he was sheltered by the queen, but what happened to him afterward we do not know for the papyrus is badly damaged and the conclusion of Wenammon's report is lost.

The contemplative teaching of Amenophis also foreshadows the end of the kingdom of the Pharaohs. Tranquility, the quality which Amenophis urges upon his little son, is curiously un-Egyptian. In the great days of the great Thutmose few would have paused long enough to listen to their "heart's counsel." But this late book of Egyptian wisdom is concerned with piety rather than practical considerations, with contentment rather than self-seeking:

The truly tranquil man, he setteth himself aside,  
He is like a tree grown in a plot;  
It grows green, it doubles its yield,  
It stands in front of its lord,  
Its fruit is sweet, its shade is pleasant,  
And its end is reached in the garden.



Egyptian Boys Driving Donkeys  
(after Lepsius).

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# Nineteenth-Century Europe: Liberal or Conservative?

EUGENE N. ANDERSON

---

EUROPEAN history in the hundred years after Napoleon has been regarded in the United States as the story of the slow but certain victory of liberalism over the *ancien régime*. In writing this history the episodes emphasized have been those in which liberalism clashed with the old order and either overcame it or, unfortunately, was temporarily defeated by it. American historians have assumed that the goal of the century was to establish the ascendancy of the American social and political ideals; they have interpreted European history according to their own wishes; and they have been abetted in this work by the memoirs and biographies of liberal exiles from the continent and by the tendency to translate those works about continental history which fitted their own theories. They have followed the tradition of the rationalistic historians of the eighteenth century in regarding their ideals as universal standards, and, setting the example which President Wilson followed, they have tried to compel history to make the work safe for liberalistic democracy. It is only fair to add that the English, French, and

even many German historians have written about the past century in the same manner.

## LIBERALISM IN TEXTBOOKS

THE evidence to support this contention is to be found in any textbook. Carlton J. H. Hayes to be sure in the foreword of the second volume of his *Political and Cultural History of Modern Europe* asserts that "the World War and its aftermath have profoundly altered our perspective. We now see the nineteenth century not only as an auspicious season for the fruition of liberal aspirations of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, but also as an ominous seedtime for the disquieting realities of the present day." The table of contents, however, shows that the realization of this fact has not appreciably affected the author's general view of the century. He covers the period under the headings "Liberal and Romantic Europe" and "Democratic and Realistic Europe." His captions are scarcely different from those of J. Salwyn Schapiro's *Modern and Contemporary European History*, "Nationalism and Democracy 1815-1870" and "Political and Social Reform 1870-1914." To give one more example, Arthur Norton Cook in a volume of *Readings in Modern and Contemporary History* chooses as chapter headings the following: "The Conservative Era" (17 pages), "Reform Movements" (chiefly English, 34 pages), "Nationalism" (28 pages), "Liberalism" (24 pages), "Imperialism" (36 pages), "Diplomatic Background of the World War" (28 pages). These three historians reckon with the forces of conserv-

It is easy for liberals to interpret the nineteenth century in terms of liberalism, but the results scarcely account for the illiberalism that has followed the World War. The head of the history department at American University in this article tests a different pattern for the interpretation of nineteenth-century Europe.

atism more than their captions would indicate; but they do so only as a foil for liberalism. The distribution of space reveals their predilection for liberalism, and the other writers of textbooks do not vary from this pattern. The three great revolutions, the English, the American, and the French, are taken by American historians as the sources of this movement toward liberalism, and the revolutions of the nineteenth century are handled in detail. The history of Russia is usually treated in such a fashion as briefly to condemn Nicholas I and to emphasize the three stages of reforms, first under Alexander I when reforms were unfortunately dropped, second under Alexander II when the serfs were happily emancipated, and third the revolution of 1905. The reader carries away the picture of a country torn by strife, where the Decembrists, the Nihilists, the Liberals of the Zemstva, even the Social Democrats are the heroes fighting valiantly against a collapsing regime that is never adequately described. The history of Austria is dealt with in similar fashion, although as a rule much less space is given to this country because American historians know so little about it. The occasion is taken, however, to denounce Metternich and conservatism. Germany is drawn into the story of liberalism by the revolution of 1848, by the work of Bismarck in unifying the country and in establishing a parliament, and by the industrialization of the country. The history of Italy is limited to the story of the realization of Cavour's ideals and of their subsequent slow degradation, grudgingly admitted and glossed over by reference to the preservation of parliamentary institutions. The high spots in the history of France are always the revolutions, and the periods of Louis Philippe and of the Third French Republic. The Balkans are treated *à la Seton-Watson*, that is, the political history of rebellions and of the establishment of independence is given with a wealth of easily forgotten detail, chosen in accordance with the interest of English liberals, and Turkey and per-

haps Austria are the villains. The other small countries are handled more briefly in the same fashion. Then with chapters on the industrial revolution, science, women's emancipation, socialism, and with plenty of the diplomatic history since 1870, the book concludes its tale. The history of the nineteenth century has been made safe for liberalism.

Such an interpretation of the history of the century could perhaps be justified on the ground that liberalism was bound to win on the continent as it had in England and in the United States. Yet the events in Europe since the World War show that this expectation has not been realized. One sees at the present day an enormous survival of the institutions and ideals of the *ancien régime*, and one is led to believe that the force of liberalism on the continent was small. The history of continental Europe in the nineteenth century has become for us far more complicated than it was formerly regarded. The question of the relative importance of conservatism, liberalism, collectivism in its many forms, and nationalism has been reopened, and it demands a new answer. The purpose of this essay is to offer a tentative reply to that question as it pertains to liberalism and conservatism. It is hoped that in no sense will the discussion be construed as an attack on liberalism. It deals solely with the historical significance of liberalism in Europe.

#### NATURE OF LIBERALISM:

**L**IBERALISM will be used in this essay in the Anglo-French-American sense of a fairly well marked set of ideals and practices, which are aimed to provide as complete autonomy as is rationally practicable for the individual. It must be remembered however that any such definition as can be given here is too short to be accurate in every detail. Liberalism judges and chooses institutions according to their furtherance of the independent life of the individual person. Thus it connotes rationalism, parliamentary government, supremacy of the law,

civil equality, economic freedom, restriction of the functions of government as means to this end. In the past it has usually accompanied the rise of capitalism, industrialism, and the bourgeoisie.

It differs from democracy in its point of emphasis. Whereas liberalism focuses attention upon the development of the individual person and regards the group as being merely a loose agglomeration of separate individuals, democracy is based on the belief in the primary value of the group and on the willingness to subordinate the life of the individual to that of the group. Democracy may be liberalistic, as it has been in the history of the United States and in part of Europe during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries; but, in case the welfare of the group seems to demand the substitution of some form of collectivism for liberalism, democracy may destroy liberalism. The establishment of communistic, fascist, and national socialistic forms of social and political organization has manifested this destruction; while the English and the American forms of collectivism have attempted to preserve as much liberalism as possible within the limits fixed by the exigencies of collective action.

#### NATURE OF CONSERVATISM

**C**ONSERVATISM will be used here as a general term to designate the ideals and institutions of the society of the *ancien régime* in the nineteenth century. The character of the ideals and institutions varied from country to country, as did the degree of influence. Nevertheless, since the continent preserved so much from the middle ages and from the period of absolutism, the pattern of conservatism was fairly clear in all countries. On the whole, conservatism in the nineteenth century implied the preservation of social organization according to caste, that is, aristocrat, burgher, hand-craftsman, and peasant, the retention of privilege, the superior importance of agrarian rural life over industrial urban life, the antagonism to capitalism—an antago-

nism however diminishing in some areas where aristocrats thought they could use capitalism without endangering their way of life and non-existent in others either because capitalism had not reached them or because it had been accepted for centuries—antagonism to bourgeoisie, defense of absolutistic or aristocratic form of government, the retention of the standing army either mercenary or semi-national in character, religious orthodoxy, and the union of throne and altar.

Conservatism differs fundamentally from present forms of collectivist democracy, but it has, nonetheless, contributed perhaps more ideas and customs to the more extreme forms of collectivism than has liberalism. In the nineteenth century conservatism lacked and would have disliked the democratic aspects of modern collectivism, the social fluidity, the violation of rights of private property, the equality of opportunity to serve the group, the regimentation of the individual and the sacrifice of him to serve the welfare of the group, and the national army. It opposed the industrialism which collectivism uses so well for the whole. It obtained in an era of slow change, of dignity and manners, and in our contemporary world it would be unable to stand still long enough to be conservative.

However nineteenth-century conservatism would discover many of the basic ideas and institutions in the more antiliberal collectivism strangely familiar to it—to begin with the aversion to liberalism. It would find that the organization of society according to caste has taken the more modern form of organization along functional lines, the corporative state, that privilege has been restored to its original base of making it possible better to fulfill duties to the group, that agrarian life is once more enthusiastically lauded, that private capitalism is feared and curbed in the interests of the group, that absolutism has cropped up in the garb of democratic dictatorship, that the mercenary army has been revived as the party shock troops, and that the union

of throne and altar has taken the new shape of a union of the state or nation or ideal (communism) with religious feeling. It is highly significant that modern extreme collectivists on the continent have discovered many congenial ideas in the writings of many conservative theorists of the early nineteenth century.

#### DOMINANCE OF THE CONSERVATIVE TRADITION

**E**VEN a casual knowledge of continental history in the nineteenth century will reveal the overwhelming territorial preponderance of the countries conserving the society of the eighteenth or of an earlier century. In 1815 Russia, Austria, the Balkans, Spain, and Portugal remained practically untouched by liberalism, and Germany and Italy were but slightly affected. The conservative powers dominated the center and the extremes of Europe, East, Southeast and Southwest. At the end of the century, that is, really in that fatal year 1914, this distribution of forces continued to be, relatively speaking, the same.

A survey of the countries on the continent will make the influence of the old order of society apparent. The history of Russia in this century is clearly the history of conservatism. Every feature, from the government to the economic situation and theory, to the society, to the culture, proves the overwhelming power of pre- or anti-liberal society. The influence of this conservative colossus on the rest of Europe has never been adequately portrayed or perhaps realized.

Without Russia's presence Germany and Austria-Hungary, as powers in the center, would have been far more open to western influence from France; and Russia's example and often her support kept conservative society vigorous in these countries and prevented the autocracy and the aristocracy from succumbing. Germany and Austria-Hungary were preeminently the battle ground of western liberal and eastern con-

servative ideals. In Austria-Hungary the agrarian aristocratic society and the autocratic government, supported by the bureaucracy and the army, made few concessions in reality to liberalism until later in the century. In Hungary the old order persists to this day. Industrialism never showed strength in Austria, and, where it took hold at all, it was often subject to the influence of the aristocracy. The capitalists easily joined forces with the elements wishing to preserve the social status quo. Most of the population remained rural and localistic. In Germany the power of the Junkers continued almost undiminished until the revolution of 1918. Parliamentary institutions served as a cloak for the survival of aristocratic and autocratic power. Social standards were set by the Prussian aristocracy, which kept its hold on the bureaucracy and the army. Liberalism, never strong in Germany at any time, succumbed to Bismarck's policy of force and to the fear of the rising socialists. By 1914 Germany had accepted capitalism and had undergone many changes; but the conservative order of society remained in political and social control and prevented the triumph of liberalism even by way of industrial capitalism. The history of Germany since the war indicates the enormous power of conservatism.

The mere mention of the names of Spain and Portugal is enough to align these states with conservatism. The case of Italy is somewhat more complicated. Recent studies have shown that Cavour's success was not so miraculous as historians had thought; nevertheless, Cavour faced enormous odds. The liberals were few in number, the power of despotism obtained during half the period and the effects of despotism, illiteracy, lack of political training, and a low standard of public morality quickly threw the liberal institutions out of order and prepared the road for fascism. During much of the century Italy belonged with the conservative powers; thereafter, except for a short period of brilliance, her history is a record of the failure of liberalism.

Even the history of France has been no clear cut march to victory for liberalism. If the Third Republic is not regarded as the culmination of the French political efforts of this century, the periods of Bourbon rule and of Louis Napoleon and perhaps much of that of Louis Philippe must be excluded from the history of liberalism. Even during the Third Republic the difficulty of fixing on a form of government, the Boulanger episode, and the Dreyfus affair reveal the persistence of conservatism; the army defended itself against liberal control until after the turn of the century.

In the Balkans liberalism remained alien in practice and thought. Rumania was the country of privileged boyars and of servile peasants; Bulgaria, Serbia, and Montenegro of peasants and autocrats to whom liberal ideals were almost if not altogether unknown. The Ottoman Empire must be put alongside Russia as a survival of the middle ages. Greece approached at times more nearly the ideals of liberalism than any of the others; but her history in this period is too checkered to fit into a liberal scheme. The post-war story of the Balkans and of the Danubia corroborates the evidence concerning the small hold of liberalism in these regions.

It of course goes without saying that conservatism accepted and realized some of the ideals for which liberalism stood. The work of Bismarck, Witte, and several Austrian statesmen offers the most apparent examples; but these men used elements of liberalism as means of preserving the power of conservatism and scarcely wished to be liberal. They acted with somewhat the same intention as the English Conservatives in passing the Reform Bills.

THE importance of liberalism in the nineteenth century has been exaggerated partly because of the overemphasis upon political history. The liberals have attracted the attention of the political historian because of their aggressiveness in demanding constitutional and parliamentary govern-

ment. One must remember, however, that in most of the European countries the number of these liberals remained very small until toward the end of the period and that even then Russia, Austria-Hungary, the Balkan states, Spain, and Portugal could not muster many of them.

When the other facets of history are analyzed, the slight significance of liberalism as over against conservatism becomes clearer. In administrative history it is decidedly questionable whether the ideals and methods of the bureaucracies, preserved from the eighteenth century, changed greatly during the period. The liberal attacks against bureaucratism on the continent were always weak. The power of absolutism and bureaucratism had been far stronger there than in England and had accustomed the population to governmental aid and direction. In the nineteenth century the bureaucracy expanded and became more efficient. But did the spirit undergo modification? Also can bureaucratically governed countries be and remain liberal? We see at the present time the antagonism, veiled or open, between parliamentary bodies and bureaucracies. It was more apparent in the past century. In the field of economics the world undoubtedly underwent a great change, but it remains true that in this century the industrial revolution modified only to slight extent the mode of life of the vast majority of the population.

#### CONSERVATISM IN ALL CLASSES

THE peasants of Russia, of the Balkans, of Turkey, most of Austria-Hungary, of Spain, of Portugal, even parts of Germany and France felt the influence of industrialism at a great distance. With few exceptions they did not become capitalistic farmers, not even in France. And the burghers in the small towns in the rural districts were not much more affected than the peasants. Local self-sufficiency persisted, and in most of Europe agriculture continued to be far more important than industry. The only

significant respect in which the industrial revolution affected these groups lay in the change in their market. In most areas science and invention did not transform or even greatly affect agricultural methods. Historians have also failed to take into account the fact that, when agriculture felt the effects of industrialism, it fought against industrial capitalism and for a more even distribution of the national income, and it developed an antiliberal theory of economics in which it incorporated many conservative ideals. The social life of these people was probably largely conditioned by economic limitations. Certainly in all the countries, except perhaps France, the elements of the *ancien régime*, the aristocrat, the peasant, and the burgher of the provincial town, remained the bases of the social structure.

In spite of exceptions and in spite of the aristocracy's grudging acquiescence in bourgeois capitalism, the aristocracy was fundamentally opposed to liberalism and continues to be so to the present day. The power of the aristocracy has not been adequately recognized. Even a World War could not completely break its power; in many places aristocracy still lives vigorously.

The hostility of many handcraftsmen to liberalism was manifest throughout the century, and the rapidity with which this element turned to fascism after the war reveals the weak hold of liberalism over it. The number and importance of this group has been much greater on the continent than in England or the United States. Probably in all the cities and towns the inhabitants preserved the social and cultural qualities of the middle class and did not become capitalistic bourgeoisie.

The relation of the peasant to liberalism is uncertain. The peasant disliked intensely certain aspects of conservatism; he wished emancipation and the private ownership of his land; but it is doubtful whether the Russian peasant, for example, or even many German ones, should merely on this account

be classed among the liberals. The peasant defended tradition and, except for the demands mentioned above, acquiesced in conservatism. The shallowness of his feeling for liberalism is manifested by the ease with which he has accepted fascism.

Even the proletariat cooperated occasionally with these forces of the old order against their common opponent.

The capitalistic bourgeoisie, usually liberal in institutions and interests, was on the continent more vociferous than numerically powerful. It had money and enterprise, and it caught the eye of bourgeois historians who accept this liberal bourgeoisie as a model. The rapid tempo and the material success of industrial capitalism have blinded the student to the fact that most of the peoples, classes, and groups on the continent lived outside or on the periphery of this stir and have led him to consider these non- or anti-bourgeois elements merely as potential material for capitalistic society or only important as they touch the life of this society.

THE story of the conflict between agrarianism and industrial capitalism has still to be written; when it is, it will provide the key to one of the most important sources of internal, and international trouble during the century. The struggle was particularly evident in Germany, Austria, and Russia, where the forces of the *Ständestaat*—caste-state—were strongest and where competition with bourgeois capitalistic society was most acute. In internal affairs the conflict accentuated the antagonism between classes and between interests. To this day it permeates the history of political parties and of constitutional change.

The study of constitutional history in this century requires far more attention to the elements surviving from the past than it does to those of liberalism. This statement holds even for the written constitutions that were instituted as sops to liberal demands, the Russian constitution from 1905 to 1917, Bismarck's constitution for Germany, the Austrian and the Balkan constitutions.

In the field of international relations it is usually forgotten that the diplomatic methods and standards were accepted from the eighteenth century or earlier, that on the continent liberalism had almost no influence on the conduct of international relations, and that, except for the complications resulting from the attempts of the people to influence foreign policy, it added little to the content. In every country, except to a slight extent in France, Italy, and the small states, the conduct of foreign relations remained in the hands of the aristocracy or of the diplomats trained in the old school. The effect of the social background of the diplomats upon the course of international relations has scarcely been touched upon. When it is investigated, the influence of the antiliberal aristocracy, and its recruits, will be established even further. If the term international relations is used in a broader sense to include the entire scope of the relations between states, not necessarily national states, it will be found that the influence of the elements of the *ancien régime* looms up even larger. Many aristocratic families and most princely ones had branches in other states; in some respects they formed an international power. The relation of these groups to nationalism has not been investigated adequately; but it seems probable that the attitude toward nationalism of the representatives at the Congress of Vienna persisted in these groups through most if not all of the century. During the World War autocratic Germany, for example, did not sow national hatred to the extent that the western powers did. The autocratic and bureaucratic government on the whole stood aside from these practices. Not all the aristocrats, however, maintained this high standard. Toward the end of the century, as the aristocratic agrarians became an endangered particular interest, the battle they waged against industrial capitalism began to assume an international character. Partly through the demand for the defense of the home market for their products, but more

especially through hatred against the bourgeois industrial character of the society in other countries, the agrarians poisoned international relations. They were determined to prevent their countries from sacrificing agriculture to the development of a society like that of England.

The same forces of the *ancien régime* controlled the armies throughout the period, either by way of holding the high positions or by means of moulding into their pattern the officers taken from other classes. The army preserved the conservative order of society, and, at least during these years, the introduction of compulsory military service made little change in its spirit. The habit of using army officers of high and low rank in the bureaucracies tended to perpetuate the same social view.

#### INTELLECTUAL AND ECCLESIASTICAL CONSERVATISM

THE history of thought reflects far too much the social and institutional setting of the time for it to be, on the continent, coincident with the story of liberalistic thought. Anglo-French-American liberalism enjoyed prestige, there, mainly among some intellectuals and the few people with economic, social, or political interests similar to those of the English, French, or American bourgeoisie. Perhaps one of the most important contributions of liberalism was to make the conservatives think over their position and to fight for it. Certainly the great names in continental thought are not those of liberals or democrats but those of conservatives, socialists, anarchists, collectivists, of critics and opponents of liberalism—Hegel, Haller, de Maistre, de Bonald, Marx, Blanc, Comte, Nietzsche. Recent events, especially in Germany and Italy, have disclosed the significance and importance of their conservative or antiliberal ideas.

One other field must be touched upon, namely that of organized religion as a spiritual and as a social force. Normally the liberal historian of the century has manifested slight interest in this subject.

For him orthodox religion went out of date with Darwin, and its social effect gave way to positivistic social science. Again the historian is thinking of religion on the continent in terms of the standards of deism and of rationalistic philosophy characteristic of many Anglo-French, American liberal intellectuals. The Greek Orthodox Church undoubtedly remained popular and powerful throughout the whole period; but, nevertheless, it has been almost ignored. The liberal historian has found Tolstoi, Herzen, and figures like those in *Fathers and Sons* more sympathetic and attractive. Alongside the Greek Orthodox Church one must place the Roman Catholic. The liberal historian scarcely needs to be convinced that the Roman Catholic Church disliked liberalism. The regions in which liberalism did not confront the hostility of the two great churches were restricted. In matters of faith the two churches defended religious orthodoxy against liberalistic rationalism; in the spheres of society and government they favored either social and political conservatism or some social ideal antagonistic to liberalism. And they enjoyed the secret or open support of many Protestants of Germany and of the Scandinavia, especially in the regions of the Junkers. The union of throne and altar stood fast against liberalism. Liberal Christianity influenced the same small group of intellectuals and bourgeoisie that accepted social and political liberalism. The vast majority of the population ignored it. Historians have exaggerated its importance out of self-adulation.

#### IMPLICATIONS FOR REINTERPRETATION

CONSIDERATION in this sketch of the data concerning the relative influence of the forces of liberalism and of conservatism in the century has been too summary for anyone to draw more than a tentative conclusion; but such a tentative conclusion must be that the history of continental Europe in the hundred years between 1815 and 1914 should not be seen through liberal eyes alone. Liberalism should be

treated as only one phase of the history of the period, and its analysis and story should be interwoven with those of conservatism. The American historian must recognize more adequately the institutions of monarchism, of the caste-state and other survivals of feudalism. He must cease being so exclusively a rationalist. He must write less about the history of origins, of causal forces, and more about the character of the age in itself. This point can not be expanded here. It can only be reiterated that, since liberalism was the most important new causal force for the nineteenth century, historians, devoted primarily to causal history, have overemphasized its role.<sup>1</sup> The historian should survey the century according to its own dimensions, irrespective of whether the model of conservatism was discussed in textbooks about earlier periods. He must apportion his interest more justly between political history on the one hand and social, economic, institutional, constitutional, and religious history on the other. He should learn the method and point of view of the cultural anthropologist. Thereby the significance of conservatism would of itself become apparent. The author does not mean to say that conservatism should monopolize the picture of the century; he wishes to suggest that it should occupy a far more prominent place than it has been given, that perhaps it should receive as much attention as liberalism has had or even more. Toward the end of the century the discussion of both forces should make way for that of collectivism which, since the World War, has led to the open repudiation of many people of conservatism as well as of liberalism. Between these two powers, the conservatism of the nineteenth century and the collectivism of the twentieth with its strong roots in the conservatism of the nineteenth century, liberalism on the continent had a short life and perhaps not a very important one.

<sup>1</sup> See Friedrich Meinecke's "Kausalitäten und Werte in der Geschichte" in *Staat und Persönlichkeit* (Berlin, 1933).

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# Are the Social Studies Skill Subjects?

JOHN A. HOCKETT

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**A**RE the social studies skill subjects? No. They should not be thought of as skill subjects, nor taught as such, even though they draw upon, and make use of, all the skills the child possesses, and furnish motive for the acquisition and improvement of many skills. Successful teaching of social studies includes careful diagnosis of achievements and needs in the essential skills, and provision for their constant improvement. These things, however, are all subordinate to the unique purposes of the social studies.

**A**BROAD and sympathetic understanding of the world of men and affairs is obviously a major objective in all social education. The competent individual is not only informed but is also able to seek and find new information, to select what is relevant and discard the useless, to evaluate the relative importance of various data, to reach sound conclusions, and to act wisely and effectively in the light of the best available evidence. Every part and aspect of the school program should contribute to the development of competence along these lines. As it does so, it aids simultaneously in the achievement of the

objectives of the school and of the social studies. This goal implies substantial knowledge—accurate, organized, and usable. Commensurate in significance with the development of understanding is the creation of suitable attitudes, dispositions, and allegiances, for the good citizen must be interested in the welfare of his various social groups, as well as informed about conditions, forces, and trends. The good citizen is active rather than passive; he has hope that human relations and institutions can be improved through cooperative effort, and he is courageous and aggressive in doing his part. These qualities of citizenship define the very character and personality of the individual. They are far more than mere tricks, or even skills, to be readily acquired in what might almost be called odd moments.

**T**HESE aspects of a socialized personality are not acquired in the same manner as ordinary skills. Certainly the social studies are not skill subjects in the same sense as is handwriting, for instance, which would seem to be almost entirely a matter of skill. Skills represent relatively fixed responses to more or less definite situations or needs. The teacher can assign practice in a skill, can prescribe exact steps and procedures to be followed, but can not in the same way assign practice in thoughtfulness or cooperation. The child acquires broader and more generalized behavior patterns only by being continuously in an environment that encourages and rewards such behavior. He learns to cooperate only by continual par-

Are the social studies skill subjects? Lists of objectives in current courses of study suggest that they are, but this author, who is assistant professor of education in the University of California, discounts such implications heavily.

ticipation in cooperative class and school activities. In perfecting true skills, attention should be directed to the performance of specific acts. In producing socialized individuals, the whole spirit and organization of the curriculum and the school program must be considered critically.

The subjects taught in the elementary school are not all coordinate in type or in scope. The social studies hold a unique position in the school program, since the aims in this field are as broad and comprehensive as those of the school itself.

CERTAIN skills have been recognized as worthy of attention in the elementary school and have been included in the subjects of reading, arithmetic, language, art, and dramatics. Accordingly they are not, strictly speaking, social studies skills, although their perfection and use is of vital concern to social studies teachers. The reading skills, for example, are essential to success in social studies, as elsewhere. To appreciate their importance in the achievement of social studies objectives, contrast the understanding concerning the outer world of an illiterate person who has lived, let us say, eighty years in a narrow environment limited almost to the range of his own senses of seeing and hearing, with the broad background and keen insight of a young person who has, through books, traced the whole history of the human race, participated vicariously in the thinking of the greatest minds of all time, and learned to appreciate the complexity of abstract relationships and problems that are entirely unknown to his illiterate elder. Varying amounts of time and effort are required to master skills, many of which, moreover, may be taught or applied in fields other than the social studies. Skill in the use of card indexes, tables of contents, chapter headings and the like, is relatively mechanical and can easily be taught in social studies or elsewhere. Skill in comprehending the author's meaning, in estimating the validity of evidence, and in sensing difficulties and

problems, is of a higher, more intellectual type, and can be acquired effectively only with more expert teaching and preferably not in social studies alone. Skill in making quantitative estimates and comparisons, and interpreting statistical and graphic representations of quantitative data pertinent to social phenomena, which is another ability essential to the competent citizen, may appropriately be stressed in social studies teaching. One who possesses skill in graphic sketching or in dramatic portrayal will find occasion to use his abilities in clarifying and revealing social phenomena. Skills in the use of oral and written language to clarify and communicate one's point of view and one's evidence is equally important, but certainly not solely in social studies.

It seems, however, that the social studies may claim as their own those skills relating to the interpretation and use of maps and globes of various kinds. No other division of the school curriculum is charged with responsibility for teaching these skills, and social studies teachers recognize the value of helping pupils use maps effectively.

SOCIAL studies instruction is essentially futile unless it leads to a progressive enrichment of the child's understanding of various groups, classes, peoples and races, their beliefs, ideas, prejudices and aspirations, their methods of work and play, their customs, traditions, and institutions, their leaders, their problems, their conflicts. Social studies teaching is inadequate if young people do not form the habit of weighing values, and of choosing values to which they can hold in the midst of confusion and conflict—in short, if they do not build day by day a defensible philosophy of life. Success in teaching the social studies must include the kindling of enthusiasm for cooperative endeavor in continual improvement of a free, democratic group life. These goals are not attained by stopping with the kind of teaching and learning that develops the many skills that, though useful, are only incidental means to a greater end.

# Duplication Between Commercial Subjects and the Social Studies

ALLEN Y. KING

**A**N examination of the courses usually offered in the commercial or business-education curriculum shows two groups of subjects: first, those designed primarily to provide skills for vocational or personal use, such as typewriting, shorthand, machine operation, filing, and bookkeeping, and, second, those that deal more with the general nature of business life such as courses in junior business training, business information, business organization, salesmanship, and advertising. In some sections of the country economics and economic geography are treated as commercial subjects. However, for the purposes of this discussion these two subjects will be considered as social studies.

Some leaders of business education, not satisfied with training in vocational skills alone, have enthusiastically set about planning or revising the courses in the second group of commercial subjects mentioned above. They hoped that through the study of these subjects pupils might acquire some of the more general abilities and broader understandings essential to successful economic life. They said that "every person,

regardless of his position, education, or social standing" should be informed about certain "phases of business relating to banking, borrowing, and lending money, finance, insurance, investment, personal bookkeeping, budgeting, buying, selling, business correspondence, business law, real estate, and certain phases of practical economics."<sup>1</sup> The following are some of the major objectives they set up: (1) an appreciation of the importance of industry and commerce; (2) the ability to perform intelligently those manifold business activities common to all people; (3) an understanding of the social and economic services rendered by business; (4) the ability to consume discriminately the services and goods business has to offer; (5) a recognition of the seriousness and complexity of the major social, business, and economic problems, and the development of a desire to contribute to their equitable solution.

We may not agree fully with this list of objectives. We may believe that they are directed too largely toward developing an attitude of acceptance of the status quo in business organization. Yet the list sounds very familiar to anyone who has read objectives in the field of social studies. We must agree that, to the extent that these

The supervisor of social studies of the Cleveland Public Schools reviews his observations and conclusions concerning possible duplication of subject matter between the social studies and such commercial subjects as salesmanship, advertising, and business information, organization, and training.

<sup>1</sup> Quoted from the "Extent and the Ways in Which Commercial Subjects Serve the Objectives of Citizenship Training," an unpublished statement by the heads of commercial departments of the Cleveland high schools to the superintendent of schools, January 17, 1936, p. 3; similar statements are found in many places in the writings on commercial education; see the *Seventh Yearbook of the Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association*, 1934.

subjects contribute to the pupils' progress toward these goals, they have citizenship training values as conceived by a large element in our population.

#### DUPLICATION

**A** N examination of courses of study and textbooks in commercial education raises the question of duplication and confusion in curriculum building. Some of these courses seem to repeat large parts of courses in mathematics; others, of work done in home economics classes, notably the sections dealing with consumer's problems. There seems to be a still greater degree of similarity with some social studies courses, such as community civics, economic civics, vocations, economics, consumer economics, and problems of democracy. The following list of topics selected at random from some newer commercial textbooks and courses of study will serve to show this relation: money, banks and banking, meaning and benefits of economic living, taxation, trade with other countries, budgets, insurance, the business cycle, good manners, understanding others, credit and its uses, getting the most out of spending, buying a home, installment buying, personal investments, types of business ownership, transportation, thrift, reasons for business, business organization, travel in the modern world, frauds and their detection, choosing a means of earning a living. In several cases these new commercial subjects, as outlined in textbooks and syllabi, do unusually well the things we have been attempting to do in some of the newer courses in the social studies. They have been restricted less by tradition and have been able to address themselves directly to present needs. Publishers frequently have submitted these newer textbooks to be considered for adoption in social studies classes. Many of them develop understandings much needed in our increasingly complex life, and merit the attention of social studies teachers.

#### PLANNING

**W**HAT can or should be done to meet this problem of duplication? The fact that many similar conclusions have been reached by educators working independently on common problems in the two departments, instead of being condemned, properly should be made the basis for future cooperative planning.

There are certain understandings, abilities, habits, and ideas that all pupils should develop regardless of their probable future vocational pursuits. To aid pupils to acquire these basic elements essential to all citizens in a democracy, programs of activities and subject matter should be organized into courses required for all boys and girls irrespective of whether they are pursuing the academic, commercial, technical, or industrial arts course of studies. In these basic courses, repetition should be planned carefully, because of its importance in the development of habit and understanding. However, unnecessary repetition of certain topics should not crowd from the curriculum other topics and activities of equal value.

After we have planned the courses basic to all pupils, and provided for introducing them into the curriculum, and after all teachers in all departments are conversant with this basic program, then it is possible that each department may plan additional courses to meet the needs of special groups of pupils, and that the departments best qualified or equipped to meet these needs shall be given the responsibility for organizing these special courses. Many of the courses now offered may be quite satisfactory, but certainly cooperation and differentiation in formulating the program for business education and the social studies is more likely to produce desirable curricula than attempts at mere correlation between courses now in existence. All that is necessary is some degree of planning and some degree of departmental unselfishness.

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# Interrelation of Secondary School Subjects

RICHARD W. VAN ALSTYNE

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**A**LL human knowledge, like all life, is essentially one. There is a clear relation between the so-called fields of knowledge and therefore between the various school subjects. The only actual frontiers are the individual limitations of individual human minds. Yet the march of knowledge and the craving for still more knowledge have created specialties, and, tragically, specialties build fences. We know that as the search for more knowledge goes on—and we know that it will probably not stop—specialization will be carried further and will become still more complex. We are thus very likely to have more and more people whose experiences in life, whose enjoyment of life, become progressively more limited. To be sure, specialization is necessary if the world is not to go backward, but the specialist, from the mechanic in the Ford factory to the great investigator in medicine, is apt to be the most defenseless of individuals. He knows little of many things that happen around him, and, if he deviates from his established path, he is in danger of meeting with disaster. In such circumstances, anything that education can

do to retard specialization, and therefore to delay the erection of mental barriers or to minimize them, it should certainly do.

**E**SSENTIAL connections among the various school subjects lend themselves, more or less obviously, to a broader consideration of the social studies as a whole, and present efforts to teach these connections ought to be stressed increasingly. The essence of economics is the study of production and exchange of the goods of this world; but, whether we are considering these phenomena as they existed yesterday or two centuries ago, or as they may be tomorrow, it is evident that we can not separate them from history. There is a continuous similarity in economic phenomena, whether they are to be found in a complex, planned society, or in an individualistic, primitive, frontier society. There are the same elemental human wants. There is always, in connection with these wants, the question of the abundance or scarcity of nature's supplies. Thus the economic life of the Athenians was based upon the sea, for the food supplies of their city had to be got from distant shores. What data is available with which to compare the problems of the Athenians with those of modern Britain? Do the methods by which the Athenians organized their economy suggest any possible solutions to modern Englishmen? Or, conversely, does the situation of modern England suggest possible lines of further investigation of the Athenians and their ways? Moreover, what could be more apparent, even to the layman, than the

The head of the department of social studies of Chico State College, California, discusses the necessity and the method of keeping the essential unity of knowledge constantly before pupils in our schools rather than permitting division into compartments of apparently unrelated specialties.

frequent identity of economics and government, or of economics and geography, or again of history and geography? Who would deny that the history of the United States, for example, has been conditioned by the landscape, or that the economic programs of the several European nations are governed by the limitations of their territories? Who would deny that studies in population, poverty, disease, propaganda, the family and the home, marriage and divorce, and other items that form the subject matter of sociology, can be divorced from any of the other fields of the so-called social studies?

#### RELATIONS WITH LITERATURE

WITH literature, too, it should not be difficult to see a kinship, whether it is English or foreign, French or Greek. Of course, the historical romance, such as *Ivanhoe*, is an obvious illustration; but are not the works of George Eliot descriptive of rural, mid-nineteenth-century England, and are they not also "sociological" in their content? And are not Sinclair Lewis's *Main Street* and Margaret Mitchell's *Gone with the Wind* each rooted in certain parts of the American landscape? How many teachers of English have taken the trouble to inform themselves of the historical, economic, political, geographic, and sociological conditions on which these, and countless other great works in all languages, are based? And how many teachers of history, economics, government, geography, and sociology are aware that in these same books they have priceless aids with which to convey their message to their pupils—the most appealing aid of all, an interesting story? Cannot the teacher of American history unbend enough to take a side glance at Hamlin Garland's *Son of the Middle Border*, and cannot the sociology teacher spend a few hours with Mark Twain's *Roughing It* to fortify his mental picture of what a frontier society is like? Or perhaps said teacher is just too lazy, mentally inert, or worn down, to take up such diversions.

#### WITH NATURAL SCIENCES

WITH equal facility it is possible to illustrate the alliance between the social studies and the natural sciences. What bearing does a power revolution—a change from wood to coal, or from coal to oil, or from oil to electricity—have upon human behavior? May it not modify the strength or weakness of a government, vitalize it or cause it to crumble? Did not the discovery of a smallpox virus more than two hundred years ago profoundly contribute toward the making of a society vastly different from that in which Oliver Cromwell moved? And did not the publication of Sir Charles Lyell's *Principles of Geology* one hundred years ago, and of Charles Darwin's *Origin of Species* seventy-five years ago, have a good deal to do with altering our habits of thought and therefore modifying our actions, just as the work of Robert Andrews Millikan or of Sir James Jeans bids fair to do today? How idle to dwell in the linsey-woolsey house of a segregated "subject"!

#### WITH OTHER DISCIPLINES

PERHAPS you think that physical education, or the applied arts, or the practical commerce and home economics courses have no connection with the social studies? Then why the popularity of the varied "events" at every college and high school track meet—the discus, the javelin throw, the relay race, and other revivals of the ancient games? Why the modern interest in the dance, so strongly imbued with the striving for the beauty and grace of form that characterized the physical feats of the ancient Greeks? Does anyone imagine that these interests and forms of modern activity are not symptomatic of the modern character, just as they helped to condition the temperament and the physique of the ancients? And as for the staid historians, who are supposed to be so disdainful toward these trifles, the *American Historical Review* on "Football in Medieval England" (October, 1929) may be summoned in evi-

dence. Perhaps you think football has no place in a course in English history, or, perish the thought, that English history has naught to do with football! I shall not extend the list further, though, as has been indicated, some knowledge and a slight effort of the imagination can easily bind the strands between history and the social studies and the arts, the work in commerce, or in home economics.

#### WAYS AND MEANS

**H**OW shall we make all this evident in teaching? It is not important whether courses shall be given such novel titles as "Social Living" or "Social Problems" or "Contemporary Problems," or kept under the old nomenclature, whether they shall be "integrated" or "fused" or cast into a single graven image, or retained as separate subjects. The thing that does matter is that the teachers of the social studies know what they are doing, that they have some ability to analyze and compare different social phenomena, economic, psychological, or geographic, and that they possess some mental agility in crossing from the frontiers of history into economics, sociology, or the rest. If the mental alertness of teachers can be improved by altering the names of courses or by changing the form and order in which they are given, such changes should by all means be made. We all know that the time-honored, rigid, compartmentalized subject courses must go—and indeed many newer textbooks and current courses of study indicate both a broadening within subjects and a closer relationship among them. No one should be more acutely aware of the shortcomings of these outmoded high school courses than the college instructor. Particularly deplorable is the practice of segregating history from "the other social studies" and treating it as if it were a succession of distant and artificial political events with nothing to do with the lives of any of us. No wonder that history is so uninteresting and unreal to our pupils! The college teacher of history has a

very direct and immediate interest in this problem of history teaching in the secondary schools. It is indeed an uphill fight to confront students who enter college classes with preconceptions and convictions as to the deadness and uselessness of history. For this mental condition the college professor who insists on the *status quo* in history methods in the secondary schools must bear a share of responsibility.

#### CONTEMPORARY PROBLEMS

**S**OMETHING should be said about the relation of history and contemporary problems, since the latter are frequently accorded an important place in the curricula of progressive schools. I have heard rumblings of the warfare between the advocates of teaching contemporary history and the advocates of teaching "just history." Articles on "Teaching History Backwards" have been written, and a great debate appears to be in progress between the advocates of this method and those who adhere to the strict chronological approach to history.

I am not altogether sure just what "teaching history backwards," or the "counter-clockwise" approach, means, but in all candor I must confess my belief that its supporters are right! The psychologists have called attention to a sound principle when they have pointed out that the psychological, or hind-end-first approach to history, is better in most cases, particularly with adolescents, than the logical, that is, the chronological method of approach. If the outline of the courses given in the University of Chicago Laboratory School is typical, the counter-chronological system simply involves starting with a sketch of some important modern problem and then immediately throwing it back to its origins and tracing its historical development from its beginnings down to the present day. There seems nothing in which to take exception with such a moderate and unrevolutionary procedure as this. Most people are only interested in past developments of society when they see some connection

between the past and their own situation.

Surely, however, the most strait-laced advocate of chronological history could find no objection to a comparison, in a California class, between the olive industry of California and that of ancient Hellas, or to some skillful references on the part of the teacher to the similarities in the climate and geography of California and the Greek peninsula, or, again, to a comparison between our free and healthful open-air life and similar life in ancient Greece? References of this sort, which link the immediate with the remote, the known with the unknown, surely can not fail to awaken the interest of the pupil and broaden his mental horizon. It is even more important, and, in a great many cases, relatively easy, to show analogies or contrasts by the use of figures or other data.

#### CURRENT EVENTS

**A**LTHOUGH the encouragement of courses or work in contemporary problems seems quite proper, I do not think the same recognition should be given to "current events." Like a course in cabbages and kings, the latter suggests simply a passing interest in unrelated events as recorded from day to day in the press, and this would not seem to be in accordance with the modern rule that the study of things should be built around some central principle or on some central theme. Furthermore, in the choice of contemporary problems and in the amount of time devoted to them, it would be most unfortunate to rule out past history. Care should be taken that the contemporary problems selected are not ephemeral in character or are merely of passing interest. To do otherwise would be to commit a grave educational injustice, for it would deprive the pupil of any stable knowledge of life. To illustrate, a particular divorce situation may be a temporary problem, but the marriage relation and the family are permanent features of human existence. Strictly speaking, the contemporary problem is non-existent,

for, if it has any significance, it has a chain of historic experience behind it of which one ought to be aware.

#### RECURRING PROBLEMS

**P**ROBLEMS of fundamental importance in human history have a way of appearing and re-appearing after long intervals of apparent non-existence, and very often much may be learned of their present features by examining them as they were in other times and other places. The problem of unemployment and public relief, for example, is a recurring one, and I think I can say truthfully that a knowledge of how it was handled in the England of Elizabeth's day, and again in the same country in more recent times, will throw some light on how it might be handled here. One may sympathize with the impatience of many educators who think that pupils are taught too much about the middle ages and not enough about the existing conditions of their own land, but such educators are in some danger of becoming as dogmatic and reactionary as the old strait-laced type of pedagogue. For that matter, a close study of the corporate spirit of the middle ages can not fail to increase one's awareness of the social trends of our own times. In fact it may be said emphatically that as between these two extremes of thought—the radical school that thinks we should throw history overboard and teach only contemporary problems, and the ultraconservative school that would maintain unchanged the old graded hierarchy of history courses—there is little to choose. To the ultraconservatives one can only say that it is impossible to teach the whole range of history to any high school student, even that it is impossible for any individual to absorb the whole field of significant history during the entire span of his adult life. One may add that it is not necessary simply to "cover the ground," to begin with King Minos of Crete and end with Franklin Roosevelt. For if I have made myself clear at all, it is that my conception of history is one that embraces the whole

field of society's experiences. Such a conception has nothing to do with the cramming of a limited number of facts, political, military, or economic, selected arbitrarily because of their assumed importance.

#### ULTIMATE PURPOSES?

**T**O the modern radicals who disdain Mother History one may say with equal emphasis that in casting—or, to put it more correctly, in attempting to cast—loose from our moorings with the past, they are thoughtlessly throwing away all real opportunity to reach some stable remedies for our existing social predicament. They thus open the gate to all the perils of hasty action, action based on the emotion or the sentiment of the moment and unbuttressed by sober judgment. In politics they are deliberately inviting that which they would most avoid, a communist or a fascist dictatorship. For no one of us is unaware of the fact that modern American society is being subjected to the pressures of organized selfish and self-deluded groups, to an extent to which it probably has never been before. In Germany and Italy and elsewhere the ceaseless propaganda and illusory panaceas of such powerful groups have already reaped their victory. For the acceptance by the Italian, the German, and the Russian peoples of the programs of fascism, national socialism, and communism—programs which were evolved by small organized minorities and broadcast by means of all the agencies known to modern propaganda—can scarcely be based upon reason or stable judgment.

There are lessons of history of priceless value, and they must be salvaged. How shallow indeed are the proposals to abandon the study of history may be illustrated by the late agitation over the proposed changes in the Supreme Court, and their effects upon our constitutional system. Who

among you, whether you are for or against these proposed alterations, is not concerned with the past career of the Supreme Court and its interpretations of the Constitution? That there occurred for many months an earnest searching by both the supporters and the opponents of the Court for past precedents is a sign that history has not lost its place in the consciousness of the American people.

**F**INALLY, if there is any one thing that education must do, it is to inculcate a greater tolerance and a desire for stable and careful individual judgments in the younger generation. Some educators hold that the vital issue confronting American education is the problem of how to combat fascism or communism. But the issue goes much deeper than an educational war on some strange symbol or vague program of action with a mysterious, high-sounding foreign name. If there is one thing we must fight it is the power of any highly charged propaganda to work upon the illiterate, inexperienced, and emotional mass mind. We must fight to keep the spirit of calm deliberation and reflection alive. We must therefore fight to keep the experiences of mankind fresh and real in our memories. There is an essential unity underlying all things and all thoughts in life, and teachers can and must develop, first in themselves, and then in the younger generation, a consciousness of such unity. Broadening the content of courses will help some. Breaking down the barriers between mere "subjects" will help more. If the latter can be done through composite, cooperative courses, in which teachers teach according to a pre-arranged plan worked out cooperatively, well and good. The really important thing, however, is not the framework of courses, but the intellectual mettle and the capacities of the teachers.

# Teaching Practices in Junior High School

HARL R. DOUGLASS AND ANNA V. FILK

**A**S a means of throwing light on current classroom practice a check list was sent to one hundred teachers of history and other social studies in junior high schools in Minnesota. The items concerned the use of oral teaching and collateral reading, assignment procedures, socialized methods, visual instruction, testing, and study direction. Usable replies were received from sixty-two teachers in thirty-six schools of various sizes.

## ORAL TEACHING

The replies show that oral teaching—the "telling" and the lecture method—has by no means been abandoned, especially in the introduction of new material, in stimulating interest, and in treating subject matter of considerable difficulty. Table I shows, however, as in the case of other procedures, a wide spread in the extent and nature of oral instruction, and certainly indicates something less than constant and universal use of this procedure.

New developments in the philosophy and psychology of education have brought many changes in the theory of classroom procedure during the past generation. A test of the extent to which theory has affected practice is reported in this article. Dr Douglass is Director of the Division of Education, University of North Carolina, and Mrs Filk teaches English in the eleventh grade of Roosevelt High School at Virginia, Minnesota.

TABLE I USE OF LECTURE OR TELLING METHOD

	Per Cent of Teachers Reporting				
	Never	Occa- sion- ally	Fre- quent- ly	Regu- larly	Not Report- ing
To introduce a new topic	2	35	32	23	8
To summarize a section of work	13	34	34	6	13
To introduce supplementary material	0	32	44	13	11
To explain visual material	10	26	35	8	21
To arouse interest or appreciation	0	29	39	27	5
To aid in mastery of difficult subject matter	2	16	42	34	6
Give short tests on such talks	27	27	21	15	10

## COLLATERAL READING

Most of the sixty-two teachers appear to make considerable use of collateral reading, although only a small number employ some written check to see that the reading is done. More than half the teachers have oral reports on the books read.

TABLE II USE OF COLLATERAL READING

	Per Cent of Teachers Reporting				
	Never	Occa- sion- ally	Fre- quent- ly	Regu- larly	Not Report- ing
Assign collateral reading	0	24	45	29	2
Require collateral reading	0	34	31	35	0
Give suggestions for unassigned collateral reading	5	27	38	21	9
Check required collateral reading by written tests	26	35	19	10	10
Have notebooks or other reports on reading handed in	16	21	23	29	11
Have individual oral reports on collateral reading	6	18	61	15	0
Instead, occasionally question individuals on their investigations	32	32	10	3	23

## ASSIGNMENTS

A substantial number of teachers report the use of problems, though less than a third regularly use large-unit assignments, while about half report the frequent or regular use of "logical" rather than "psychological" organization of subject matter. The use of

projects appears to be limited, and there is little class participation in planning the work of the course. Some use of the Morrison plan is indicated, but no extensive use of three-level assignments. About a fourth of the teachers regularly employ workbooks; more than a fourth require the submission of daily written work.

TABLE III METHODS IN MAKING ASSIGNMENTS

	Per Cent of Teachers Reporting				Not Reporting
	Never	Occa- sion- ally	Fre- quent- ly	Regu- larly	
Use problems involving several recitations	10	16	37	29	8
Set up problems in daily assignments	6	26	32	24	12
Attempt to organize subject matter psychologically instead of logically	13	26	19	19	23
Have students work projects (setting up radio, making scrap books, etc.)	10	45	23	11	21
Have students work projects in groups	21	47	21	5	6
Have individual students work projects	8	39	35	13	5
Have pupils assist in planning problems for class study	35	32	21	3	9
Have students assist in planning attack or procedure in solving problems set up	32	32	21	6	15
Use Morrison Unit Plan (test, teach, retest, remedial teaching)	37	18	15	19	11
Use any form of contract plan	27	19	19	15	20
Use other types of large assignments	19	26	19	13	23
Supplement large unit assignments with almost daily or daily suggestions	11	10	16	40	23
Make differentiated or three level assignments	32	24	13	11	20
Use a workbook	32	10	18	14	26
Have students hand in papers or problems on daily assignments	19	27	29	16	9

#### SOCIALIZED PROCEDURES

The formal type of socialized recitation with parliamentary organization and procedures seems rarely employed. Informal discussion groups have considerable popularity, though less than might be expected. The question and answer procedure retains a substantial following, and topical recitations are frequently used.

TABLE IV SOCIALIZED METHODS

	Per Cent of Teachers Reporting				Not Reporting
	Never	Occa- sion- ally	Fre- quent- ly	Regu- larly	
Use formal socialized recitations	27	18	3	3	49
Use informal discussion groups	3	15	35	29	18
Use question and answer recitations	13	34	29	18	6
Use topical recitations	8	35	45	11	1
Allow open textbooks	37	31	16	8	8

#### VISUAL INSTRUCTION

The questionnaire responses show very little use of newer visual aids. There is some slight use of slides and the stereoscope, but almost none of motion pictures. The more traditional and far more readily available maps, charts, pictures, and bulletin boards are regularly used. Few excursions or field trips are taken, and only a small number of teachers use dramatizations or demonstrations in their social studies classes.

TABLE V USE OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION

	Per Cent of Teachers Reporting				Not Reporting
	Never	Occa- sion- ally	Fre- quent- ly	Regu- larly	
Use slides	35	13	8	3	41
Use motion pictures	40	10	0	2	48
Use stereoscope	31	5	6	3	55
Use maps, charts	2	3	42	53	0
Use pictures	2	11	44	42	1
Use bulletin board	3	18	24	47	8
Use excursion or field trips	42	18	0	0	40
Use dramatization	23	39	13	5	20
Use demonstrations	27	23	15	6	29
Use others (please name)	8	2	2	2	86

#### TESTING

On the whole the testing practices of teachers appear to change slowly. Though many teachers employ standardized tests occasionally none report the regular use of such tests. Pre-tests on new sections or units, and diagnostic tests, are administered with some frequency. A substantial number of teachers follow up diagnostic tests with remedial work.

TABLE VI METHODS IN TESTING

	Per Cent of Teachers Reporting				Not Reporting
	Never	Occa- sion- ally	Fre- quent- ly	Regu- larly	
Use standardized tests	27	39	15	0	19
Give pre-tests on sections or units	35	27	19	6	13
Give prognostic tests	48	11	2	2	37
Use diagnostic tests	24	31	26	13	6
Employ remedial teaching based on such tests	19	18	27	19	17

#### DIRECTING STUDY

Nearly all teachers provide some training in study habits of pupils. A few teachers give their classes study rules, while others give pupils practice in applying study devices. Many teachers indicate that they make a distinction between reading and studying. A large number give special attention

tion to tables of contents, indexes, and footnotes, while a substantial group discuss the value of bibliographies. Many teachers give pupils training in formulating questions, notetaking, and outlining. Teachers apparently are devoting some time to assisting individual pupils in their classes, particularly those of low ability.

Teachers apparently follow no rigid practice in dividing the class period for supervised study, only a few reporting that they have a definitely divided period. A few teachers have individual instruction rather than group activity; about one third use homogeneous grouping. Only three teachers report a class in how to study.

TABLE VII METHODS IN DIRECTING STUDY

	Per Cent of Teachers Reporting				
	Never	Occa- sion- ally	Fre- quent- ly	Regu- larly	Not Report- ing
Give pupils instruction on how to study	2	19	42	34	3
Give students lists of rules on how to study	27	21	18	15	19
Give practice in class in using study devices	10	37	34	15	6
Give drill and tests in the reading of subject matter	5	27	37	23	8
Give special instruction and practice in class in the skimming type of reading	19	35	23	13	10
Give special instruction and practice in class in the study type of reading	10	21	37	18	14

	Per Cent of Teachers Reporting				Not Report- ing
	Never	Occa- sion- ally	Fre- quent- ly	Regu- larly	
Teach students how to use tables of contents	2	27	21	48	2
Teach students how to use the index	2	24	23	50	1
Teach students the purpose of footnotes	0	29	19	50	2
Teach the purpose of bibliography	5	37	26	27	5
Give students practice in finding answers to sets of questions	0	18	45	35	2
Give practice in formulating questions on a section of subject matter	6	29	44	19	2
Give special attention to teaching students how to take notes	10	35	37	19	5
Give special attention to teaching outlining	3	39	31	27	0
Give more practice in study methods to classes with low average ability	8	19	31	29	13
Use supervised study time to aid individual students	6	10	37	31	16
Use supervised study time to work with this class as a group	3	27	31	26	13

	Yes	No	Not reporting
Have definitely divided period to allow for supervised study	31	55	14
Use flexible method of dividing period for supervised study	73	18	9
Have a definite plan of individual instruction with little or no group activity	13	60	27
Use homogeneous grouping	31	58	11
Plan material differences in subject matter and methods of instruction for homogeneous groups	31	15	54
Is there a special class in how to study?	3	81	16

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# Work Exercises and Test Items, a Contrast of Purpose

HARRIET H. SHOEN

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**A**LTHOUGH the two are usually confused in social science workbooks, there is a fundamental difference of purpose between exercises planned for the pupil's use during study hours and exercises planned for the measurement of his achievement. The work exercise is the pupil's guide during the learning process. Test items, on the other hand, measure the result of the learning process with as great precision as is possible. The experience gained by doing a work exercise should contribute to the development of understanding and skill in the manipulation of the materials and processes of the social sciences. The experience gained by answering test items successfully is of secondary importance, although it is known to contribute to future success in similar situations. Of primary importance in any test situation is the requirement that the pupil's responses lend themselves to reliable interpretation, which is the ultimate purpose of modern educational measurement.

**T**HE task of planning learning experiences for pupils of varying abilities and interests is a major professional problem for

Insisting that work exercises in the social studies should be concerned not with testing but with the development of understanding and skill, the author, an experienced teacher who has prepared workbooks in American history, gives examples of exercises that require real analysis and intellectual activity.

every teacher of the social sciences. The teacher who possesses the happy faculty of being able always to recommend the right experience for the right pupil may not have gained that professional skill accidentally. It is more than probable that he has spent a great deal of time studying his individual pupils, and as much more time investigating available instructional materials, to say nothing of the large amount of reading that every social science teacher must do if he is to keep abreast of the times. The ease that is characteristic of mastery may be applied to the basic creative act of all teaching, which consists of making apt suggestions to pupils concerning what they might find interesting as learning experiences.

No modern teacher will consider that he understands his pupils without making use of as many as are available to him of the instruments of diagnosis provided for his use by the professional measurements expert. He will study thoughtfully the results of diagnostic tests of all kinds, attitudes tests, and cumulative school records. He will probably need to devise some diagnostic tests of his own. All this is assumed. But in the daily rounds of his duty, if he is to guide the learning experiences of his pupils to higher levels, he must understand clearly the difference in purpose between tests and work exercises, alias assignments, alias activities, or what you will. He may, perhaps, find it worth his time to construct some exercises that meet the unique needs of his own pupils. The following discussion attempts to set a helpful contrast of purpose between work exercises and tests.

## QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

SIMPLE questions and answers, which form the basic fabric of all social intercourse and by means of which the first civilized men exchanged ideas, are as fundamental to the learning process today as they have been at any former time. The everyday affairs of most men are managed by conversation that does not go far beyond such inquiries as who, what, when, where, why, how, and equally simple responses. In these simple questioning and answering processes of everyday life each child learns to take his place at an early age. For the older pupil the questions and answers of informal classroom discussion or formal forum discussion differ little except in the degree of formality imposed by the audience. Through experience and mastery the successful pupil acquires a relaxed control over these discussion processes. A part of this poise is due to his increasing knowledge of the subjects discussed, but the greater part is due to his ability to identify himself with the progress of the discussion, to contribute questions, and to respond to those proposed by others.

Simple "straightforward" questions, so useful in everyday life, have a real place in the work exercises assigned to guide preparation for classroom discussion. Such questions challenge and direct thought along lines that will prepare the student to take part in the future discussion of the subject. Whether the questions are dictated by the teacher, copied from the blackboard, assigned in mimeographed form, or chosen either from among the printed work exercises provided at the end of a chapter in a textbook or from a workbook, their fundamental purpose is the same. They serve as guides in the learning process. The short answers or brief descriptive or explanatory paragraphs, written by the students as responses to many of the questions, will vary with the degree of insight possessed by the individual pupil. In reading and criticizing these responses the teacher will use his "subjective" judgment, and he will recognize

clearly that, in abilities and habits of expression, individuals differ in many ways.

Although questions that yield varying responses have their justified place in work exercises in the social sciences, as test items they are usually not desirable because they can not be interpreted conveniently by statistical methods. For purposes of accurate measurement an "objective" standard against which to rate each pupil's attainment is desirable. This can be obtained from the distributed results of a test given under uniform conditions and composed of test items that require the same responses from all pupils. Here the test item may justly replace the straightforward question for some purposes of measurement, but the question still possesses its unique value in the teaching and learning process.

## READING COMPREHENSION EXERCISES

SUCCESS in the social sciences probably depends more upon the student's ability to understand what he reads than upon any other one skill. Since in the social sciences a student is called upon to use many different reading techniques and varied kinds of reading materials, learning experiences must be provided both to develop power to meet these reading situations and to meet individual needs and challenge individual interests. If such work exercises are not available in printed form, the teacher should devise some of his own and assign them to his pupils in mimeographed form.

A useful type of reading work exercise consists of a group of questions designed to guide the student's analysis of the content and meaning of a brief selection of reading matter. Such exercises may be built around source materials, statistical tables, maps, cartoons, or other graphic materials. The following exercise has been constructed to help pupils analyze a source:

## Exercise I

A COMPANY IN ENGLAND SENDS INSTRUCTIONS TO ITS  
PLANTERS IN AMERICA

The following letter was sent by the governor and deputy of the Massachusetts Bay Company to Governor

Endicott in Salem, before the officers of the company removed to New England. The original letter<sup>1</sup> is long, but the parts quoted will give you a little insight into some of the problems the early settlers of New England had to face. Read the letter carefully and answer the questions that follow it.

LAUS DEO!

*In Gravesend, the 17th of April, 1629*

LOVING FRIENDS,

We heartily salute you. We have received your letter of the 13th of September, by which we take notice of your safe arrival, blessing God for it. . . .

Since your departure we have, for the further strengthening of our grant . . . obtained a confirmation of it from his Majesty by his letters patents under the broad seal of England . . . as by the duplicate thereof, under the broad seal, which we have delivered to Mr. Sharpe to be delivered to you, doth fully appear. . . .

We take notice that you desire to have Frenchmen sent you that be experienced in making of salt and planting of vines. We have inquired diligently for such, but cannot meet with any of that nation. Nevertheless, God hath not left us altogether unprovided of a man able to undertake that work; for that we have entertained Mr. Thomas Graves, a man commended to us as well for his honesty, as skill in many things very useful. First, he posseth great skill in the making of salt, both in ponds and pans, as also to find out salt springs and mines. Secondly, he is well seen in mines and minerals, especially iron ore and iron works. Thirdly, he is able to make any sort of fortifications. Fourthly, he is well able to survey and set forth lands. He hath been a traveler in divers foreign parts to gain his experience. . . . As soon as you have made trial of his sufficiency, write us your opinion how long you conceive it will be fit for us to continue him in our service. . . . His salary costs this Company a great sum of money . . . which we pray you to take into your consideration. . . .

Such cattle, both horses, mares, cows, bulls and goats, as are shipped by Mr. Craddock, are to be divided into equal halves 'twixt him and the Company; which was omitted to be done here, for avoiding partiality; so you must do it equally there.

We pray you to be careful to make us what returns you possibly may, the better to enable us to send you a fresh supply. We hope you have converted the commodities you carried with you for truck into beaver, otter, and other furs, and which we pray you send us by the *Talbot*; as also any other commodities you have provided in readiness against the ship's coming thither. But pray do not detain her any long time to cut timber, or any other gross lading; for she is at £150 a month charges, which would soon eat out more than the goods she should stay for is worth. Wherefore, pray make what expedition you can to unlade her goods, and to put such things aboard her as you have ready, and send her hitherward again as soon as you may.

If, at the arrival of this ship, Mr. Endicott shall have departed this life (which God forbid), or should happen to die before the other ships arrive, we authorize you,

Mr. Skelton, and Mr. Samuel Sharpe, to take care of our affairs, and to govern the people according to order, until further order. . . .

Your assured loving friends

The Governor and Deputy  
of the New England Company

For a Plantation in Mattachusetts Bay.

1. Why had the officers of the company obtained "letters patents under the broad seal of England"? . . .
2. For what purpose might Governor Endicott use his duplicate of these letters? . . .
3. What useful devices had Mr Thomas Graves promised to perform in New England in exchange for the excellent salary the company paid him? . . .
4. Why was it more impartial to wait to divide the animals until they reached New England? . . .
5. How had the settlers expected to obtain beaver, otter, and other furs? . . .
6. Why did the company request that the *Talbot* should not be detained while the settlers cut lumber for a cargo for her return voyage? . . .
7. What is the meaning of each of the following expressions? "LAUS DEO!", at the beginning of the letter. . . .  
"trial of his sufficiency" . . .  
"provided in readiness against the ship's coming thither" . . .  
"make what expedition you can" . . .  
"send her hitherward again as soon as you may" . . .
8. What evidence can you find in this letter to prove that the business of the Massachusetts Bay Company was in the hands of thrifty, shrewd business men? . . .
9. Why do you think it was necessary for the company to make plans for what was to be done in case of Mr Endicott's death? . . .
10. In the light of this letter, what advantages could have been gained through the removal of the officers of the company to New England? . . .

MOST of the questions in the above work exercise may be answered by using information found in the letter. A few questions require that the information derived from the letter be used in its practical historical setting in association with related facts already possessed by the student. Collectively, these questions demand from the student a fairly thorough analysis of the letter. The experience thus gained should give the student the valuable appreciation and historical insight that is the unique result of the study of primary sources.

Controlled-response questions might have been used in the above exercise. The author did not choose to use multiple-choice questions because the alternate choices, or foils, would introduce irrelevant

<sup>1</sup> Alexander Young. *Chronicles of the First Planters of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay from 1623 to 1636*. Boston, 1846, vol. V, pp. 141-47.

ideas and processes of thought that would destroy the ideational unity of the letter and the attitude of historical-mindedness produced by it. The disorderly progression of this-or-that intercomparisons and choices, which characterizes the mental process involved in answering multiple-choice questions, would provide an additional hazard for the student, instead of proving of assistance to him during the learning process. Had the purpose of the exercise been one of measurement, however, the author would have used multiple-choice items because objective responses are more conveniently scored and interpreted.

**A**NOTHER type of reading work exercise requiring the use of reading matter as reference while answering the questions will be found in Exercise II.

#### Exercise II

##### THE NEUTRALITY PROVISIONS OF THE HAY-PAUNCEFOTE TREATY

Let us suppose that Japan and Great Britain were at war. Answer the following questions by referring to Article III of the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty.

1. Could British or Japanese ships pass through the Panama Canal if Japan and Great Britain were at war? .....

2. Could British or Japanese ships land stores or munitions and food for the future use of their ships along the canal? .....

3. Could Japanese and British troops be landed along the canal? .....

4. If a Japanese vessel passed through the canal, and was followed in a few hours by a British vessel going in the same direction and in apparent pursuit of the first vessel, what would the British vessel be required to do? .....

5. Could the Japanese vessel wait at the exit of the canal so that it could meet the British ship as it came out of the canal and engage it in battle? .....

6. Where could the battle take place between the two ships without violating the provisions of the treaty? ...

7. What provision of the treaty would prevent the British ship from hurrying to catch the Japanese ship? .....

8. Could the Japanese ship stay in the canal in order to be safe? .....

9. Could a Japanese ship in distress because it had been in a storm stay in the canal? .....

10. Could the British sink mines and blow up a Japanese ship while it was in the canal? .....

11. If the British captured a Japanese vessel, could they leave it at anchor along the canal until the war was over? .....

12. Could the officials in charge of the Panama Canal decide that they would let Japanese vessels go through the canal, but not the British vessels?.....Why?.....

Article III of the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty. "The United States adopts, as the basis of the neutralization of such ship canal, the following Rules, substantially as embodied in the Convention of Constantinople, signed on the 28th of October, 1888, for the free navigation of the Suez Canal, that is to say:

1. The canal shall be free and open to the vessels of commerce and of war of all nations observing these Rules, on terms of entire equality, so that there shall be no discrimination against any such nation, or its citizens or subjects, in respect to the conditions or charges of traffic, or otherwise. Such conditions and charges of traffic shall be just and equitable.

2. The canal shall never be blockaded, nor shall any right of war be exercised nor any act of hostility be committed within it. The United States, however, shall be at liberty to maintain such military police along the canal as may be necessary to protect it against lawlessness and disorder.

3. Vessels of war of a belligerent shall not revictual nor take any stores in the canal except so far as may be strictly necessary; and the transit of such vessels through the canal shall be effected with the least possible delay in accordance with the Regulations in force, and with only such intermission as may result from the necessities of the service.

Prizes shall be in all respects subject to the same Rules as vessels of war of the belligerents.

4. No belligerent shall embark or disembark troops, munitions of war, or warlike materials in the canal, except in case of accidental hindrance of the transit, and in such case the transit shall be resumed with all possible dispatch.

5. The provisions of this Article shall apply to waters adjacent to the canal, within 3 marine miles of either end. Vessels of war of a belligerent shall not remain in such waters longer than twenty-four hours at any one time, except in case of distress, and in such case, shall depart as soon as possible; but a vessel of war of one belligerent shall not depart within twenty-four hours of the departure of a vessel of war of another belligerent.

6. The plant, establishments, buildings, and all works necessary to the construction, maintenance and operation of the canal shall be deemed to be part thereof, for the purpose of this Treaty, and in time of war, as in time of peace, shall enjoy complete immunity from attack or injury by belligerents, and from acts calculated to impair their usefulness as part of the canal" (William M. Malloy, *Treaties, Conventions, International Acts, Protocols, and Agreements between the United States of America and Other Powers, 1776-1909*, 61st Congress, and Session, Senate Doc. No. 357, 1910, Vol. I, pp. 782-83).

Many of the questions used in the above exercise are direct questions which may be answered by "yes" and "no." Yet, is it not true that those simple assertions or negations can not be made until the provisions of the treaty have been read and under-

stood? Is not the direct question the simplest and most natural form to use in such an exercise? The same form of yes-no thinking might have been guided by means of true-false statements, it is true. Yet, why should the hazard imposed by the manipulation of symbolism be added to distract the student from the problem at hand? Should the student fill his mind with thoughts of plus and minus signs, or capital T's and F's, or should he think only of the brief, direct answer to a straightforward question? Thinking in terms of symbolism may have its place in the learning process, but is it useful here, or is it merely an added task?

#### TRUE-FALSE AND GUESSING

THE true-false item has been much criticized because its very nature seems to invite guessing. When true-false statements are used at all in an instrument of measurement, the number of wrong responses is subtracted from the number of rights to obtain a score. Guessing, in the opinion of the author, should not be condemned in a wholesale manner. An intelligent guess comes fairly near being a hypothesis, and the hypothesis is one of the most fertile forms of creative thought. The process of guessing varies in degree from "mere idle guessing" to a very high degree of creative thought. To overcome any premium which true-false statements may place upon an undesirable form of guessing, the following adaptation of the true-false form will be found useful in work exercises, although the amplifying statements may not be objective enough for measurements purposes.

#### Exercise III

*Directions:* Place a *T* before a true statement. Place an *F* before a false statement and use the space that follows it for writing the correct information.

- ....1. The first American troops to arrive in France at the time of the World War were the drafted men of the National Army.....
- ....2. Russia stopped fighting in the World War in 1917.....

#### COMPLETION EXERCISES

AS a guide in the learning process the completion exercise has the highest value, while for purposes of measurement its value is not so great. The scoring of a completion exercise usually involves some responses that are not objective and are inconvenient to interpret statistically. Some specialists in educational measurement consider completion exercises of no reliable value whatever for purposes of measurement. However that may be, carefully constructed completion exercises make excellent work exercises.

A completion paragraph presents an incomplete thought unit—an ideational configuration with important missing elements. The pattern of thought roused in the mind of the pupil on first reading this imperfect thought structure possesses an innate dynamic power that demands that he complete the mental configuration in the shortest, most perfect manner—a strain toward the "good gestalt." The ease with which he can accomplish this closure will depend upon the factual equipment he is able to assemble, his classified knowledge and the proximity, either accidental or teacher-assigned, of necessary but unfamiliar materials. Thus, in the eyes of the gestaltist, the completion exercise possesses a very high value as a work exercise. The application of the completion technique to the comprehension of a statistical table is illustrated in Exercise IV. This technique will also be found useful for map study exercises.

#### Exercise IV

##### KINDS OF MONEY IN CIRCULATION

Study the following table which gives the kinds of money in circulation in the United States (outside of the Treasury and Federal Reserve Banks) for the year beginning with the end of the month of November, 1935, and closing with the end of November, 1936, in millions of dollars. Fill in the blanks in the completion exercise by using the various facts which the following table gives (*Federal Reserve Bulletin*, January, 1937, p. 49).

End of Month	Total	Gold certificates	Silver dollars	Silver certificates	Treasury Notes of 1890	Subsidiary silver	Minor coin	United States notes	Federal Reserve notes	Federal Reserve bank notes	National Bank notes
1935-Nov.	5,846	110	34	812	1	309	130	284	3,612	68	487
Dec.	5,882	109	34	828	1	312	131	275	3,667	66	458
1936-Jan.	5,737	107	33	809	1	303	129	259	3,598	63	436
Feb.	5,846	106	34	841	1	304	129	254	3,696	60	421
Mar.	5,877	104	34	864	1	307	131	245	3,727	58	406
Apr.	5,886	103	34	886	1	309	132	249	3,726	56	391
May	5,953	102	34	914	1	312	133	265	3,760	54	378
June	6,241	101	35	955	1	316	135	278	4,002	52	366
July	6,162	100	35	958	1	318	136	274	3,937	50	352
Aug.	6,227	99	36	986	1	321	137	278	3,978	48	342
Sept.	6,267	98	37	998	1	326	138	278	4,011	47	332
Oct.	6,351	97	37	1,020	1	329	139	282	4,076	46	324
Nov.	6,466	96	37	1,051	1	334	141	289	4,156	45	316

The total amount of money in circulation in the United States at the end of November, 1936, was \$..... more than the total amount at that time the previous year. The largest amounts of money circulated in the form of ..... during every month included in the table. There was \$544,000,000 worth of ..... more in circulation at the end of November, 1936, than at that time the previous year. The value of the ..... reported in circulation at the end of each month remained the same throughout the year. Three kinds of money that showed decreases in the amounts in circulation at the ends of each month during the year were: (1) ..... (2) ..... and (3) ..... There was \$14,000,000 less of ..... \$23,000,000 less of ..... and \$171,000,000 less of ..... in circulation at the end of ..... than at that time the previous year. There was, however, \$239,000,000 worth of ..... more in circulation at the end of November, 1937, than at that time the previous year. On January 1, 1936 (use the figures for end of December, 1935) the value of the Federal Reserve notes in circulation was ..... per cent of the total value of all kinds of money in circulation.

THE exercise does not exhaust the possibilities of the numerical facts that can be read from the table. More completion items could be added, or the pupil might be asked to add statements of his own, discovered by studying the figures of the table—an activity that would demonstrate his ability to apply the interpretative processes with which he is working. The important thing to notice about this exercise is that it is a reading comprehension exercise based upon the table—only. It does not bring into the picture any additional facts about the different kinds of money, interesting as such facts might prove for classroom discussion. Neither does it expect the pupil to be enough of an economist to be able to assign

causes for the various increases or decreases that he discovers in the data. A spirited class discussion should develop after such a work exercise, of course.

#### INTELLECTUAL ACTIVITIES

**L**EARNING experiences that guide the thought of the pupil along logically sound lines, that teach him to recognize relation between facts, to make comparisons, and to form his own conclusions, should be given as much attention in the activity program of any school as is given to the more overt activities. It is all very well to say to a pupil, "Compare this and that," but the pupil who has never learned how to make comparisons can not do it without assistance of some sort. He needs to know what to do, step by step, while he makes a comparison. For this purpose the author has devised the tabular types of work exercise illustrated in Exercises V and VI.

#### Exercise V

**Directions:** Use the facts that are given in the first and last columns of the following table to help you to decide how the questions in the central column should be answered.

Facts about the North	QUESTIONS TO ANSWER	Facts about the South
Property consisted chiefly of farms, stores, factories, and machinery.	In which part of the country would you expect to find people against abolition? .....	Property consisted chiefly of slaves and plantations.
	In which part of the country would you expect to find the greater number of people who favored the tariff? .....	
	What part did slavery play in the attitude of the North toward Texas? .....	
	What part did it play in the attitude of the South? .....	
	Why did they not have the same feeling toward Oregon? .....	
	etc.	

#### Exercise VI

**Directions:** Write two answers for each of the questions printed in the second column of the following table, one for the year 1865 in the first column, and the other for 1900, in the second column. Study your

two answers carefully and write your conclusions about the changes that took place between 1865 and 1900 in the last column.

In 1865	QUESTIONS TO ANSWER	In 1900	Conclusion about the changes that occurred between 1865 and 1900
	1. What proportion of the total population of the United States was engaged in agriculture?		
	2. How did farming rank in importance as compared with other occupations?		
	3. To what extent were farms owned and worked by immigrants? etc.		

Although the teacher will find work exercises that provide for a step-by-step analysis of what the pupil does during the learning process useful for guidance purposes, he will probably prefer to use a more economical exercise for test purposes. Had the purpose of Exercise VI been one of measurement, it would have been far more economical to set multiple-choice or matching items concerned with the basic facts of the conclusions (the materials of column four). For measurement purposes the teacher wishes to know whether the pupil knows the fact that results from the process of doing the work exercise. For guidance purposes, the teacher wishes to help the pupil follow a sound procedure of logical thought.

Modern teachers provide a variety of learning experiences for their pupils—a variety as great as the varied nature of the subject matter and processes of the social sciences demands. Not all of these learning experiences are adapted to paper performance. Some of them necessarily involve active participation by the student in social and industrial processes. The variety of experience should apply to intellectual activities as much as to other activities. Many different kinds of mental activity are used in meeting the complex problems of modern life. It is every teacher's duty to plan his teaching in such a way that his

pupils are given an opportunity to do many different kinds of thinking.

Some of the readers of this article may remember the days when the formal outline was the only work exercise extensively used in the study of history and related subjects of instruction. Students were given so much experience in developing skill in the trick of outlining the logically expressed thought of other people that they had little time to learn to think for themselves.

#### WORK EXERCISES AND TESTS

As the difference between the purposes of work exercises and tests becomes better understood, commercial workbooks in the social sciences find it necessary to undergo a complete metamorphosis. They are no longer merely "test books"; but they provide a wide variety of learning experiences, which give them a value of their own entirely separate from that of the textbook they are designed to accompany. There is even a place for a book of supplementary work exercises, carefully constructed to provide supplementary activities for individual pupils.

In contrast to the broad purposes of the work exercise, the purposes of measurement are becoming more and more specialized. Test items which appear to possess little value to the teacher (who thinks in terms of teaching and learning values) may have high value as instruments of measurement. The measurement value of a test item is found by experimentation with a large number of cases, and a good test item for purposes of measurement must get responses that show accurate discrimination between different degrees of achievement. Groups of test items printed in workbooks are not tests at all, in this sense, because their results are not standardized, or used for measurement purposes. Their usefulness is one of loose diagnosis, as a guide in the learning process. Where precise measurement of achievement is required, the teacher should be able to call in the services of a specialist in educational measurement.

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# Have You Read?

KATHARINE ELIZABETH CRANE

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WITH events crowding hard on each other, as they have this past month, and with each event having repercussions to the far ends of the earth, the articles that appear in the current issues of various magazines must necessarily lack some degree of timeliness today; and no man can foretell what will be their relation to the face of the world by the time you read this. One of the most hackneyed of proverbs is that one about politics and strange bedfellows, but we are very like to see its truth proved over again these next weeks—quarrels patched up and new friendships cemented right and left with seemly and unseemly haste.

With the recent disappearance of Austria as a separate government the eyes of the world and his wife have turned again in startled amazement toward Central Europe, which has in fact continued to exist all the time with very much the same problems and very much the same dangers as are now acutely apparent. Czechoslovakia seems obviously next on Hitler's program—unless it is to be Rumania—and in the present mood of Europe it is not to be expected that she can find the support necessary for resistance. She is harassed by political and economic problems, coupled with the complications due to at least five racial minorities of which the German minority is the largest.

In "Here Stands Czechoslovakia!" reprinted by the April *Living Age* from *Prager Presse*, the Prague official German-language daily, a Czechoslovakian statesman "presents the case for his embattled

country." In the difficult circumstances that always surround the rights and the wrongs of diverse social, economic, and racial groups anyone may question the wisdom of such pronouncements as are here recorded. "We are also sure that our internal and external policy is correct and that it will fully justify itself as affairs in Europe develop. It is a policy of sincere and consistent preservation of peace and of all-European understanding for the benefit of all."

CZECHOSLOVAKIA is presented in what is really a more favorable light by Frank L. Hayes's less partisan discussion of "Hitler and Central Europe" in the *Yale Review* for April. The author believes that the essential unrest is economic rather than racial or national, that hunger is the great fomenter of discontent. Since the peace treaty was signed the separate states of Hungary, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, and Rumania have set up tariffs and other restrictions that have hampered free movement of products and materials. The result has been an accelerating decline in production and consumption. Caught in this economic squeeze, the racial feelings of minorities rise to complain, but it is not basically the racial antagonism that must be dealt with. He quotes Josef Macek, a Czech economist, as saying that when Germans living in Czechoslovakia "criticise our economic policies, they are wont to interpret them as racial oppression. . . . When we restrict imports, and a Czech manufacturer suffers in consequence (for we cannot have exports without imports), he can-

not explain it as racial oppression. But if a German manufacturer is in trouble, he will contend that he is suffering from racial oppression." Mr Hayes believes the only way out of the impasse is a general revision of trade agreements.

#### TRADE AGREEMENTS

TRADE agreements in the interests of world peace are advocated by our own secretary of state, and in the last four years such agreements have been negotiated with some seventeen nations. Of this policy Mr Hayes says that "if the nations were to be extricated from the strangling web that they had woven about themselves, somebody, somewhere, had to make a start. Some nations had to give an example of intelligent self-interest." Yet there are "some students who believe that regional pacts alone cannot solve the problem; that what is needed is a realistic new approach on the part of all nations together," for "in economic matters Europe is already in a state of war."

Opposition to trade agreements between Great Britain and the United States is evident in the discussion in the March issue of *National Review*, an English monthly of High Tory leanings, which quotes with approval an article from the *Journal of the National Union of Manufacturers* for February. "We cannot possibly give the Americans the kind of thing they will ask for without reducing, firstly, the amount of the preference which Dominion goods receive in the United Kingdom markets, and United Kingdom goods in the Dominion markets; and, secondly, without reducing the amount of protection which United Kingdom trade goods enjoy in the Home markets."

Harold H. Sprout's "The Storm Center in Treaty-Making" in the Spring number of *American Scholar* defines the legal and political status of American trade agreements, which the President can negotiate without the two-thirds senatorial majority necessary for treaties. "Every one of these Agreements

embodies tariff concessions that would never receive a simple majority endorsement in Congress to say nothing of a two-thirds vote of approval in the Senate." The article is really an examination of that two-thirds majority, its history, justification, and manipulation, but there is no space here to consider that aspect.

In the April *Foreign Affairs* Francis B. Sayre explains "How Trade Agreements Are Made."

#### ITALY

"ITALY'S Over-Estimated Power" by George Fielding Eliot in the April *Harpers* offers a military man's view of Italy's weakness in raw materials and money to buy them, her vulnerability to blockade and her weak navy, her insufficient railroads, her far from matchless army, and the German general staff's determination not to fight another war with a feeble associate. "It is time that these facts—these cold and relentless facts of military weight—should be carefully examined and understood by Americans. If the democracies of Europe eventually come to the conclusion that Italy must be checked in her 'imperial' career they have the power to check her unaided. Of course they would like very much to have American aid. But they do not need us, and there is no occasion for Americans to fight another European war to make the world safe for democracy."

#### SPAIN

Spain's own irreparable loss from the present war is recognized by all observers. What advantage will accrue to Italy is difficult to estimate owing to the uncertainty that still exists as to the ultimate outcome and division of spoils, but the outlook is entirely different from what it was a month ago. Two developments have led to that result—the unexpected change in British attitude toward Italy and her ambitions and the increasing military success of the Insurgents, which is itself partly due

to Great Britain's change of attitude. The jubilation in Italy and in Germany is electric, while the blow to her prestige felt by Russia is very great, and France must look to the defense of frontiers that have caused her no worry for a hundred years. It is harder to understand the apparent calm in Great Britain. Some observers lean to the opinion that her leaders are supporting the interests of their class instead of those of their country—that her industry and capital expects to find a vast outlet in the rehabilitation of devastated Spain.

#### COLONIES FOR GERMANY?

**Q**UOTING Hitler's oft-repeated answer to all the arguments that colonies are not a paying investment, "It is hard to understand then why the others hang on to them so," Willson Woodside in the April *Harpers* discusses "Colonies for Germany?" Passing over the whole question of the cost rather than the gain of colonies, he points out that "whether Hitler sincerely wants colonies has little to do with the matter. The cry is too useful for excusing food shortages, for justifying the sacrifices demanded for the substitute stuff of the Four Year Plan, for raking the British conscience, and ranting about Germany's struggle for 'equality.' It might be said that if a colonial question didn't exist, Hitler would be driven to invent one."

#### RUMANIA FOR GERMANY?

**R**OUUMANIA—Another Spain" by Henry C. Wolfe in the same magazine discusses Germany's threefold interest, economic, military, political. Rumania has valuable resources of oil, timber, food, and other necessities. It represents military advantage as a base for offense or defense against Russia, and its possession by Germany would prevent Soviet aid being sent to Czechoslovakia through Rumania, to say nothing of the man-power of the Rumanian army. Politically, too, Nazi triumph in Rumania would be of some use in persuading other countries to join what would

seem, increasingly, to be the bandwagon. Yet "Hitler's determination to gain control of Roumania may plunge the kingdom into civil war." Will it? How? Can a defense be made? "The answers to these questions are of vital importance to Europe."

Answers to the essential question "Eastern Europe: Vassal or Free?" by André Géraud in the April *Foreign Affairs* may be applied to Rumania. "In spite of the weaknesses shown by so many French and British ministries, in spite of fluctuations in the public opinion on which they depend, it seems doubtful whether the French and British Governments will in the last analysis resign themselves to giving Germany a really free hand in Central and Eastern Europe. To do so would be to turn over to her such a preponderance of resources that in the end France and Britain would themselves become her victims."

#### GREAT BRITAIN

**G**REAT BRITAIN'S attitude toward the European situation is of course bound up with the decisions and attitudes of her leaders. From the *Daily Herald*, a London labor daily, the *Living Age* reprints in April "Lord Halifax," Harold J. Laski's opinion of the new British foreign secretary, who "has many private virtues which endear him to his friends." He "belongs to a class that is, I think, peculiarly English in outlook. He is kindly and gentle in manner. He is always prepared for compromise on unessentials. He is the perfect country gentleman." On the other hand, "somehow, he has persuaded himself, a deal can be made which will save Great Britain from war. No sacrifice can be too great for that. Austria, Spain, Czechoslovakia, China, the Soviet Union—they matter nothing alongside the imperative need for peace. . . . War, Lord Halifax thinks, means revolution, and revolution means a Socialist society. Accommodation to the demands of the dictators is far better than such a 'tragedy'. . . . Like Sir Edward Grey, he can shut his eyes to all that is un-

pleasant. . . . The truth is that Lord Halifax does not really grasp the forces at work in the world that he proposes to guide."

In Mr Laski's opinion "Lord Halifax is a grave danger to peace in Europe because he has no notion of how intimate is the interdependence of peace and democratic institutions. All his gestures will be noble gestures. All his words will be pacific words. But, piece by piece, he will surrender the fortresses of democracy. He will betray them all like a gentleman. He will carry us over into what is effectively the Fascist camp in the simple faith that he is fighting the battle of democracy. We shall pay in the end a high price for his high character and the moral beauty of his inner life."

About the same conclusion concerning British policy is expressed by John Palmer Gavit's "The Low Tide of Surrendering" in the April issue of *Survey Graphic*. "Neville Chamberlain, head of the now completely Tory government of Great Britain, has taken over the job with which Anthony Eden struggled so manfully, and has arrived at precisely the point where Eden left off, namely that of bargaining with Mussolini, who with tongue in cheek dangles before the British eyes terms of at least temporary peace in the Mediterranean; at each approach to agreement adding technicalities to confuse and retard the project. . . . Incidentally the British by the resignation of Mr Eden and the ensuing show of yielding to Mussolini 'for the sake of peace' have done themselves an immense disservice in this country. Whatever the excuses, they have for all practical purposes justified the feelings of those who still patter about 'perfidious Albion'; warranting suspicion on the part of liberals everywhere that conservative Britain is fascist at heart, has no understanding or real sympathy with the spirit of democracy."

"**J.** RAMSAY MACDONALD" by Mary Agnes Hamilton in the *Atlantic* for April examines the character and career of

the late Prime Minister on whom lies heavy responsibility in all this, according to the author. "Personally responsible for that fatal choice" of Sir John Simon to be foreign secretary, "out of which the present Far Eastern tragedy directly arises, he is further responsible for the failure of the Disarmament Conference, where the British attitude blocked progress on every technical commission, and Britain supported France and the Little Entente in obstinate resistance to the grant of equality on a disarmament basis to Germany."

#### GEOGRAPHY AND FOREIGN POLICY

**T**HE first installment of an article by Nicholas J. Spykman on "Geography and Foreign Policy," in the February issue of the *American Political Science Review*, deals with the influence and significance of size as modified by climate, topography, technological development, and of location as modified by changes in centers of power, communication routes, and new developments in transportation and warfare. "Because the geographic characteristics of states are relatively unchanging and unchangeable, the geographic demands of those states will remain the same for centuries, and, because the world has not yet reached that happy state where the wants of no man conflict with those of another, those demands will cause friction. Thus at the door of geography may be laid the blame for many of the age-long struggles which run persistently through history while governments and dynasties rise and fall. . . . Whatever aloofness the student of international law may permit himself, the student of international politics must deal with geography as a basic reality."

#### AMERICA'S STAKE

**W**HAT of our own dooryard? What part do we play? And what will be the outcome for us? In the April issue of *Foreign Affairs* Tyler Dennett discusses "Alternative American Policies in the Far East," in which his ominous conclusion is

that "the next step for the United States would appear to be adequate preparation for a possible war in the Pacific." In the same issue Hanson W. Baldwin discusses "America Rearms."

In the Spring number of *Science and Society, a Marxian Quarterly* Robert A. Brady analyzes "The Fascist Threat to Democracy" and thinks we can not escape without adequate reorganization, while there is yet time, of the fabric of our economic and political life.

#### ECONOMIC OPINION

**C**ONSERVATIVES in the American Economic Association dominated its Christmas meeting and presented their view that one key to permanent recovery lay in the basic understanding of the problems of savings and investments. The presidential address of O.M.W. Sprague on the "Recovery Problem in United States" is printed in the March issue of the *American Economic Review*, and the papers of all the meetings are gathered together in a supplement to that magazine. Professor Sprague surveys the situation of depression in this country in which "the industries producing capital goods have shown little sign of complete recovery, and such moderate recovery as has been made in rather laggard fashion has recently been reversed."

He thinks that "both business policies and labor policies during the last four years have impeded the development of a demand for the products of the capital-goods industries—policies which, until recently at all events, have apparently been regarded with unconcern, if not with favor, by the Government in Washington." Without attempting to apportion the blame among the three, he offers the opinion that the improvement in the situation of the capital-goods industries, which is essential to general recovery, would be hastened by "a general reduction of prices to the point at which a modest profit would still be realized as production approached full capacity."

After "the adoption of a concerted policy directed toward bringing about an increase in volume, the industries concerned would be in a far better position than now to insist upon an increase in efficiency and perhaps also a reduction in some existing wage scales; but certainly nothing in this direction can reasonably be expected so long as the policy of the various industries is precisely that of the less intelligent labor leaders—that of making adjustments to demand almost exclusively through reduced output."

Since such a program for recovery requires enterprise and risk-taking he believes that "the initiative should come from business rather than from labor or the government." Looking around for some commodity for which there exists a really large elastic demand if only cost were not so high, he finds that elastic demand in the general field of better housing. "To meet this demand, business organization, as well as low material prices, efficient labor and adequate finance are needed."

#### POLITICAL SCIENTISTS' VIEW

**C**ONSTITUTIONAL questions absorbed the attention of the American Political Science Association at its Christmas meeting in Philadelphia, as they did that of the American Historical Association in the same city. In "From Philadelphia to Philadelphia" Thomas Reed Powell, the association's president, reviewed the Constitution and its development from the point of view of a political scientist, and his paper is printed in the February issue of the *American Political Science Review*. Of the recent crisis over the Supreme Court and the proposal for its reorganization he thinks that "fully as was chastisement deserved and great as was the need of reformation, the remedy first offered had weaknesses that made common sense forbid its ultimate adoption, however wisely it might welcome the threat thereof," and that the future will approve the "productive threat" but hope it "need not be repeated."

## AFTERTHOUGHTS ON CONSTITUTIONS

THE president of the American Historical Association, Guy Stanton Ford, is a historian whose major interest does not lie in American history, "much less" as he said in "the narrow and neglected field of American constitutional history." Yet as a matter of fact his paper, "Some Suggestions to American Historians," printed in the January issue of the *American Historical Review*, runs the dramatic gamut of American history with a skill to be envied by specialists in the field. It is also, and primarily, a comment on the need for historians who see both Europe and America, present and past, and strive to take into account all the manifestations of human conduct.

Most of the papers read at these meetings will be published only at a later date and in book form. Carl Becker's paper, "Afterthoughts on Constitutions" however is printed in the Spring *Yale Review*. Without trying to give anything of the flavor of his analysis or argument I can quote only the conclusion. "Looked at in this gray light, constitutions are seen to be documents historically conditioned, the imperfect and temporary products of time and place. Whatever the intention of their framers may have been, their meaning is determined by the ingenuity of judges, God helping them, to luff and fill before the shifting winds of social opinion. Constitutions, if we have them, we retain from force of habit; but we do not make new ones if we can help it. Having lost the universal formula for their construction, the task is too formidable. We have lost the formula, yet something remains of the old faith. What remains is the conviction that man's fate rests with man himself, since nature is indifferent and the gods unavailing. His fate will be what he makes or fails to make it. He may will to make it fair, but we are not sure his intelligence is adequate to the task. Adequate or not, he must rely upon it, since it is the only guide he has.

"We still hold, therefore, to the belief

that man can, by deliberate intention and rational direction, shape the world of social relations to humane ends. We hold to it, if not from assured conviction, then from necessity, seeing no alternative except cynicism or despair. Some there are who, perplexed and angry, abandon the method of rational persuasion for irresponsible force and the assistance of communal or dialectical gods, beating at once, with equal gusto and emotional abandon, the tom-tom and the heads of their opponents. But this recourse is not for those who still cherish the value of truth and the increase of knowledge, since it is, after all, no more than veiled despair or cynicism disguised."

## CONSUMER CREDIT

SOMETIMES I think that a grasp of the simple processes of arithmetic and their applications to the problems of living are more essential than anything else to human happiness and human adjustment in the world—the ability to see without conscious effort the mathematical relation of a single purchase to the year's income, to measure the gain in a choice between two possible expenditures or buying this and saving that, and constantly to abide within the mathematical limits of one's economic status. Therefore I was particularly interested in a remark by Charles A. Gates in "The Social Worker in the Service of the Small Loan Business" which is an article in the March issue of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* devoted to "Consumer Credit" and undertaking an analysis of credit agencies and of the development of regulation. He writes. "Old conceptions of thrift were 'educated' out, and in their place have been inculcated the notions that nothing is too good for an American, that the possession of modern gadgets of comfort and luxury is the earmark of success in life, and that there is something patriotic in demonstrating that we have the highest standard of living in the world. This 'educating' process, commendable in its primary purpose, has

proved to be sadly incomplete." Then comes my special remark. "Business led the wage earner to use credit, but it did not teach him how to use it. It broke down a moral concept of thrift and did not even replace it with arithmetic."

#### SENSE AND NON-SENSE

**O**RIGINARILY we think of ourselves and our universe as being necessarily the way our five senses report them to be. Now and then we ought to remind ourselves that the facts may be entirely otherwise. Therefore I can not stop here without remarking on three articles this month setting forth the fact that the present is only an aspect of our own minds.

"Your Nature and Mine" in the April *Atlantic* by Roger W. Holmes points out that "Nature" is simply the product of what we think with our finite minds about what we observe with our finite senses and, as such, is after all only the subjective creation of our finite selves. If we were three-mile-high giants with a proportionate giant's vision and other senses, we should see "Nature" wholly differently. Trees might seem like grass, bushes and grass like moss, and many flowers, mosses, and grasses cease to be perceptible except through microscopes. Knowledge of relationships might be equally different. How should such a giant see, hear, and understand enough to know even what we do of the life of a bee, for instance, with the bee itself a microscopic animal to his perceptions, and its buzzing only to be heard through powerful amplifiers? "Our comprehension of Nature is decidedly limited both by the size of our sense organs and by the range of their sensitivity."

**M**ORE fundamentally devastating in their implications for all our basic adjustments are two articles in the Spring issue of the *American Scholar*, "Dr. Rhine and the Mind's Eye" by Gardner Murphy and "Is It Chance or ESP?" by Edward V. Huntington. Both deal with the experiments in psychical research carried on at

Duke University by Dr J. B. Rhine, concerning knowledge of external facts obtained otherwise than through the usual five senses. They are not referring to knowledge obtained by means of what is commonly known as the "sixth sense" or common sense, but to experiments which seem to indicate that it is possible for some individuals, out of sight and sound in another building, to determine what symbols are appearing as cards are shuffled in series.

"Is It Chance or ESP?" deals with the mathematical calculations involved. Ultimately explanation in our accustomed terms may be found by challenging the validity of Dr Rhine's experimental method and procedure, but the mathematicians seem agreed that the mathematical chances are too slim to warrant any explanation on the basis of chance. It is not luck. What is it? Are men to see without eyes, to hear without ears—to know that the card in the next room is marked such and such a way and to know it by some method not conveyed by sight, sound, smell, touch, or taste?

It is against all reason. But it might be true. So was radio against all reason. And it is true. This generation has learned to get on quite comfortably with radio and the realization that all the air around us is singing with unheard sounds. We have even adjusted our minds to television. And to this?

"Dr. Rhine and the Mind's Eye" surveys briefly some of the history of psychical research, describes the experiments of Dr Rhine, and offers some attempts at analysis of the difficulties of the learned world in discussing such theories. "Ours is an age which has learned to see the world one way, and according to that one way there can be no such thing as perception without the senses. . . . We dread confusion so profoundly that for the most part we cannot even see that which, as we say, makes no 'sense.' Indeed the evidence of our senses is not only our touchstone of reality; that which comes to us by other channels than the senses is, by the basic axiom of our being, 'non-sense'."

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## NOTES AND NEWS

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### Program of New York City Meeting

MONDAY, JUNE 27, 1938

#### 12:00 M. Luncheon Meeting

Chairman: C. C. Barnes, President, National Council for the Social Studies.

Speakers: Harold L. Ickes, Secretary of the Interior; William H. Kilpatrick, Columbia University.

#### 3:00 P.M. Joint Meeting with Department of Secondary Education American Museum of Natural History

Chairman: Harold Fields, Chairman, Local Committee, Benjamin Franklin High School, New York City.

Speakers: Richard Thursfield; Winfield Rice, Director of Civic Education, New York City High Schools; Hall Bartlett, High School, Garden City, New York.

TUESDAY, JUNE 28, 1938

#### 2:30 P.M. "Social Studies in the Elementary School"

Chairman: Howard R. Anderson, Cornell University, Second Vice-President, National Council for the Social Studies.

Speakers: Mary Carty, Hutchinson School, Pelham, New York; Gertrude Whipple, Division of Instruction, Detroit Public Schools; (third speaker to be announced).

Discussion

#### PLANS FOR PITTSBURGH

Arrangements for the annual convention of the National Council for the Social Studies at Pittsburgh on November 25 and 26, 1938, are taking form.

The Board of Directors of the Western Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies, acting as the temporary local committee of arrangements, have decided to recommend the Hotel William Penn as the meeting place for the convention. This is one of the largest hotels east of the Mississippi River.

The entire seventeenth floor of the hotel will be reserved for the convention, and facilities for holding the annual dinner and all luncheons, as well as for the various program meetings, are amply sufficient. Room reservations will be available at either the Hotel William Penn or the Hotel Fort Pitt at rates satisfactory to all.

Special provision will be made for excursions to the Cathedral of Learning and the Mellon Institute.

The Western Pennsylvania Council for the Social Studies hopes that every member of the National Council, and all others who are interested, will attend this convention.

#### PENNSYLVANIA

The Social Studies Council for the Midwest Convention District of the Pennsylvania State Education Association met on April 9 at the State Teachers College, Clarion. Oliver S. Heckman of the Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, described the proposed Pennsylvania program in social studies; S. K. Stevens of the Pennsylvania Historical Commission spoke on "Pennsylvania in the School Program"; and Robert Heckert discussed "Germany's *Drang nach Osten*."

The officers are R. W. Cordier, State Teachers College, Clarion, president; J. C. Ward, New Castle, first vice-president; Mrs Nora L. Kearns, Greenville, second vice-president; Laurence V. Flinner, Ellwood City, secretary-treasurer.

## CHICAGO

The Chicago Council for the Social Studies met on March 21. "The Teacher Studies the Community," a joint report by four graduate students at Chicago Normal College—Elizabeth Seward, Mary Gallagher, Elizabeth Wilson, and Florence Erickson—was enthusiastically received by an audience of both elementary and high school teachers. Those interested in joining the group should write to Ray Lussenhop, Austin High School, president, or to Grace Frederick, Tuley High School, secretary.

The National Forum of Chicago has recently published useful visual materials entitled "Social Problems Visualized."

## MISSOURI

In order that it may carry on a higher degree of participation with the mother council and to inaugurate a more extended program of its own for the coming years, the Kansas City Branch of the Missouri Council for the Social Studies is perfecting a permanent organization. To that end, on March 9 officers were elected who are to form an executive board, draw up a constitution and by-laws, and present them at a meeting to be held early in May. The board will also initiate a program of helpful and practical activities for next year.

These officers are J. N. Jordan, president; Miss Maude Mueller, first vice-president; Miss Arnold, second vice-president; Miss Anna M. Thompson, third vice-president; Harry R. Meyering, secretary; Miss Emeline L. Chandler, treasurer.

## EL PASO

A unit of the National Council for the Social Studies has been organized in El Paso, Texas. At present the membership is composed of social science teachers of the El Paso public schools and members of the history faculty of the Texas College of Mines and Metallurgy. It is hoped that the teachers of the county and private high schools will join.

It is the purpose of the unit to study the problems of social studies teachers, to promote closer contacts between the social studies teachers of El Paso and those in other parts of Texas and the United States, to encourage professional reading and the discovery and preservation of source material for the study of local history.

The practice begun several years ago by the history teachers of the El Paso high schools of presenting distinguished speakers at an annual luncheon will be continued.

The officers of the group are: Mrs Laura Y. Warren, president; Mrs Martha Traylor, vice-president; Mrs Goldie Landers, recording-secretary; Mrs Hazel Osborn, corresponding-secretary; Miss Minnie Blackmon, treasurer; Miss Grace Long, editor of the bulletin. G. L.

## SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA

The March issue of the Southern California *Social Studies Review*, edited by Marjorie Dowling Brown, is concerned chiefly with curriculum changes in secondary schools. The editor outlines a twelfth-year course in "Senior Problems," in four parts, devoted to personality and family relationships; social arts; cultural aspects of modern living and leisure interests; and consumer education and vocational guidance. The articles include "Curriculum Developments in Secondary Schools," by F. G. Macomber, "What Place Social Studies Electives in the Senior High School?" by William B. Brown, "Should the School Seek Actively to Reconstruct Society?" by Helen Story Brown, "Must It Be Sensationally Different?" by Paul W. Davidson, and "Interesting Books for Social Problems and Senior Problems Courses," by Benjamin Winegar.

The spring conference of the Southern California Social Science Association was held at Pomona College on April 2. Section meetings considered the two-hour social studies—English period, fine arts in the Social Living program, the use of biography and historical novels, panel discussions, the radio in classroom, the use of current events, and community activities. The officers are Raymond R. Brown, president; W. C. Quandt, vice-president; Samuel Oelrich, secretary; and Robert B. Johnston, treasurer.

## STUDENT GOVERNMENT CONVENTION

The eighth annual convention of student-government officers and their faculty advisers will be held in New York City, June 28-30, in connection with the summer meeting of the National Education Association.

"Quality in Citizenship" and "Laying the Foundation for Tomorrow's World" will serve as the themes for the student and teacher groups

respectively. The students will discuss the adoption of the "Code for the Good Citizen of the American High School" which is being prepared by a committee of prominent educators and student leaders.

Further information on the convention may be secured from the National Association of Student Officers, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, or Joseph C. Driscoll, 911 Flatbush Avenue, Brooklyn, New York.

#### ESSAY PRIZES IN AMERICAN HISTORY

Under the customary practice, the two prizes awarded by the American Historical Association for essays in American history would be awarded in 1939. In order to separate these two prizes, hitherto awarded in the same year, the Executive Committee has decided that the Dunning Prize should be awarded this year, the Winsor Prize next year, and so alternately thereafter. The last date for presenting competing essays for the Dunning Prize to be awarded in 1938 is September 1. All persons submitting essays for the Dunning Prize should address them to Dr Kathleen Bruce, Chairman, The Dunning Prize Committee, American Historical Association, Chesterfield Apartments, Richmond, Virginia.

#### CONSUMER EDUCATION

Consumer problems appear to be destined almost certainly to occupy a role of greatly increased importance in the school curriculum. It was the topic most often cited as needful of further emphasis by the 1764 social studies teachers whose opinions form the basis of the November, 1937, *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association. This widespread demand is evidently part of the explanation for the waxing volume of published materials which have recently appeared and for the many new consumer courses which are being initiated or projected.

*School Courses.* Provision for consumer education in the new state curriculum programs based on "areas of living" (such as in Virginia, Mississippi, and Kansas) has attracted considerable attention. Legislation requiring school instruction in consumer cooperation has recently been enacted in the states of Wisconsin, Minnesota, and North Dakota. A few colleges are pioneering with courses in this field. Although Stephens College has offered a course entitled

"Consumers' Problems" since 1932 under Professor P. W. Paustian, an expanded program of courses is planned for 1938-39 with the addition of Dr J. W. Cassels to the staff. At Antioch College next year there will be instituted a course in "The Cooperative Movement," financed by a grant of \$2500 from the Ohio Farm Bureau.

*In California Schools.* Although consumer problems are studied in established courses throughout the nation, probably no state has so many schools offering the subject in separate courses as has California. Articles describing California practices have appeared recently in the *School Review* for March and the *California Journal of Secondary Education* for April. In the former source is to be found the result of a questionnaire study involving 196 secondary-school principals. Although only 24 per cent report separate courses in consumer buying, 65 per cent expressed the belief that separate courses should be offered. In schools which did not have separate courses, the topic was included in other courses—most often in home arts and commercial courses and next in social studies. The *Southern California Social Studies Review* for March includes a plan for a "Course in Social Understanding: Consumer's Education," by Ralph W. Keywood, and a short article "Can We Be Consumer-Conscious?" by Willis T. Newton.

*In Economics Courses.* In proposing a reorganization of economics courses in the schools, Harold F. Clark, in the *Teachers College Record* for March, suggests that problems of consumption be given a position of first importance. A 10-page syllabus for a "Training Course in Consumer Education for Use in Secondary Schools" has been prepared by *National Consumer News*, 205 East 42nd Street, New York. The editors "will be pleased to assist classes in the studies in any manner desired." The outline lists good buying of food, drugs and cosmetics, clothing, shelter, household furnishings and necessities, insurance, and other items, legislation and agencies that assist consumer-students, and consumer organization. Books and periodicals are recommended, and reference is made to a complete bibliography compiled by the Foundation for Consumer Education, 510 West 6th Street, Los Angeles.

*An Institute for Consumer Education* has been established at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, with the aid of a grant from the

Alfred P. Sloan Foundation. The recently appointed director for the Institute is J. M. Cassels, now of Harvard University.

*A Conference on Consumer Education* is to be held at Harvard University on July 13 and 14. Among the speakers will be J. M. Cassels, Chester M. Kearney of Aurora College, Aurora, Illinois, and Kenneth Backman of the Boston Better Business Bureau. A concluding session is to consider practical measures to be adopted by the schools.

*Education for Wise Consumption* is the theme to which is devoted the entire March issue of the *Journal of Educational Sociology*, under the editorship of Francis J. Brown. Henry Harap surveys the need for consumer education; J. E. Mendenhall and C. M. Wieting make practical suggestions for the inclusion of pertinent material in the curriculum; W. A. Ross reviews the opportunities and special needs for consumer education in rural areas; and E. R. Bowen hails enthusiastically the recent advances of the cooperative movement and discusses implications for the schools. Perhaps the most helpful features of the magazine to teachers are two concluding sections by I. D. Satlow—book reviews and a well annotated list of instructional materials including many course outlines.

*Fact Booklets.* Not included in the Satlow list but of very evident usefulness to teachers of consumer problems are the pamphlets published by the National Association of Better Business Bureaus under such titles as *Facts You Should Know about Borrowing* and *Facts You Should Know about Rayon*. These publications are available free at the offices of Better Business Bureaus, which are located in fifty-five larger cities, or at a cost of three cents apiece by mail from any one of the local bureaus, or from the national office, 280 Broadway, New York City.

*A Consumer Education Service*—The American Home Economics Association and Phi Upsilon Omicron, home economics professional society, are cooperating in preparing information and material on consumer education, intended for use by high school and college home economics teachers, leaders in adult education programs, forum leaders, women's club leaders, consumers' cooperative organizations, and other groups. For information address the American Home Economics

Association, 620 Mills Building, Washington.

*How We Spend Our Money.* The Public Affairs Committee has issued *How We Spend Our Money* by Maxwell S. Stewart (Public Affairs Pamphlets, no. 18. 32 pages. 10 cents. Address 8 West 40th Street, New York). It analyzes expenditures of typical families for food, shelter, clothing, automobiles and transportation, medical and personal care, recreation, education, church and charity, and savings, and considers "the laws of money-spending." Further data is provided in a 14-page article on "Consumption Habits of the American People" in the *Monthly Labor Review* for March (published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor. 30 cents. Address the Superintendent of Documents, Washington).

W. F. M. and E. M. H.

#### TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD SOCIAL STUDIES NUMBER

Seven very substantial articles on teaching the social studies comprise the March issue of the *Teachers College Record*. All contributors are members of the staff of Columbia University's Teachers College and its affiliated schools.

Jesse H. Newlon reviews the force of public opinion and teacher narrowness as barriers to realistic teaching of social studies, but envisions great possibilities for improvement through stimulating teachers' consciousness of their social and professional responsibilities and through education of the adult public.

Erling M. Hunt writes that "we need better social studies teachers." He focuses attention upon the need for selecting better individuals as teachers and upon growth in service. The solution of both problems is shown to demand a degree of cooperation by administrators and the public which has hitherto not been forthcoming.

Merle Curti, Harold F. Clark, and George T. Renner advance new viewpoints with respect to curriculum content in the three fields of, respectively, American intellectual history, economics, and human ecology.

In the two concluding articles, advanced practices with respect to methods of teaching modern problems are described in terms of the procedures actually used in the Lincoln High School and Horace Mann Elementary School. For the former the reporter is Alice Stewart; for the latter, Mary Harden. W. F. M.

## SOCIOLOGY IN HIGH SCHOOL

Surveys of the teaching of sociology in the public high schools of Michigan were made in 1931 and 1936 by Leonard C. Kercher, and his findings are reported in the March *Journal of Educational Sociology*. During the five-year period studied, the percentage of large schools (enrollment of 200 or more) teaching sociological subject matter increased from 73 to 80. In many instances it was taught only in connection with other courses. The percentage of schools offering separate courses in sociology rose from 27 to 41. The smaller high schools, while teaching sociology to a lesser extent than the large high schools, nevertheless showed comparable gains during the years 1931-36. The article also includes a summary of the qualifications of teachers of sociology, administrators' attitudes as to its value, and a list of the textbooks most widely used.

W. F. M.

## PUBLICATIONS ON CURRENT AFFAIRS

The Twentieth Century Fund conducts disinterested investigations of current social and economic problems. To give the widest possible distribution to the findings of its research staffs and special committees, the fund has prepared upon the basis of these materials Public Policy Bulletins. These brief but authoritative bulletins cover the following topics: Hidden versus Income Taxes, Double Taxation, Sales Taxes, Old-Age Security, and Chain Store Taxes, and are available upon written request without charge. In addition, brief leaflets have been prepared, in a similar manner, on the following subjects: Credit and the National Debt, Big Business and Old-Age Security, and these, too, are available upon written request without charge. The office of the Twentieth Century Fund is at 330 West 42nd Street, New York City (*Curriculum Journal*, 9:147, April, 1938).

"Official estimates of the number of persons employed, income produced, income paid out, types of income payments, and per capita income for each of the 12 major industries into which the economic activities of the Nation have been classified are given in *National Income, 1929-36*, a publication of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Price, 10 cents" (*School Life*, 23:247, March, 1938).

"Explaining the purposes of the law which directly affects almost every individual living

in the United States through its benefit or taxing provisions, *Social Security in America*, the 592-page Social Security Board publication selling for 75 cents, gives the factual background of the Social Security Act as summarized from staff reports to the Committee on Economic Security" (*School Life*, 23:247, March, 1938).

*Can America Build Houses?* by Miles L. Colean (Public Affairs Pamphlets, no. 19. 31 pages. 10 cents. Address Public Affairs Committee, 8 West 40th Street, New York) deals with housing needs and government housing activity.

*The Hull Trade Program and the American System*, by Raymond Leslie Buell (World Affairs Pamphlets, no. 2. 47 pages. 25 cents. Address Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 8 West 40th Street, New York) considers the development of our foreign trade, the tariff system, and the trade agreements program and its achievements, and finds the only alternative to the Hull program to be a "rigorous regimentation of American economy."

*Marijuana: the New Dangerous Drug*, by Frederick T. Merrill, has been published by the Opium Research Committee of the Foreign Policy Association (48 pages. 15 cents. Address 1200 National Press Building, Washington). The physical and mental effects of the drug, restrictions on its manufacture and sale, and its relation to crime are treated.

*Spain and Czechoslovakia*. The Foreign Policy Reports for April 7 and 15 are *The Struggle Over Spain*, by John C. deWilde, and *Strife in Czechoslovakia: The German Minority Question*, by Karl Falk (25 cents each. Address 8 West 40th Street, New York).

## VISUAL AND AUDITORY AIDS

A list of some of the principal sources of visual and auditory aids and equipment for instructional use in schools, including a bibliography of composite lists of educational films, was recently published by the Office of Education. If you are interested write for Pamphlet No. 80 and address your request to the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. The price is 10 cents (*School Life*).

## THE UNIT ASSIGNMENT

Robert S. Ellwood of the Illinois State Normal University has published "The Unit Assignment in the Social Studies: an Outline of Teaching Procedure," in the *Illinois State Normal University Bulletin* (volume XXV, number 145, July, 1937; actually published in 1938. 30 pages). Without pretense of originality Professor Ellwood attempts a synthesis of newer teaching practices, citing the writings of Kilpatrick, Morrison, Parkhurst, Thayer, Washburne, and Caswell. The very short chapters or sections are concerned with "The Philosophy of the Unit Assignment," "The Unit and the Unit Assignment," "Evaluating a Unit Assignment," "The Unit-Assignment Procedure," "Teacher Preparation and Planning," and "An Appraisal of the Unit-Assignment Procedure."

RECENT MAGAZINE ARTICLES  
ON TEACHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Adler, Alfred C. "Integrating the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages with Mental Hygiene and Social Science," *Modern Language Journal*, 22:437-43, March, 1938. A teacher in the Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, offers a philosophy and a series of anecdotes, and concludes that acquaintance with foreign cultures can not come through translations and that language study is essential in developing a "sense of community."

Aitchison, Alison E., and Uttley, Marguerite. "Maps: the Sign Language of Geography," *Educational Method*, 17:289-93, March, 1938. Scales, network, symbols, and gradation in map reading.

Ayer, Fred C. "The Social Studies in the Changing Curriculum," *Education*, 58:397-405, March, 1938. Reviews current trends of the social studies and points to future needs.

Ball, C. C. "Social Studies for Citizenship," *Education*, 58:390-96, March, 1938. Places special emphasis on the need for moral instruction.

Becker, Henry F. "An Evaluation of Some Visual Aids to the Teaching of Geography," *Educational Method*, 17:287-89, March, 1938. Lantern or glass slides are most effective; few films are effective; sound detracts.

Bowen, E. R. "Consumer Coöperation in America," *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, 11:412-422, March, 1938. A review of the history and status of the movement for consumer cooperatives in the United States.

Brown, Harry A. "Student Participation in Institutional Life and Contemporary Culture as an Essential Aspect of Modern Teacher-Education," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 24:29-38, January, 1938. An application of Harold Rugg's concept of culture to the training of students in teachers colleges, with emphasis upon coordinating their total experience.

Brubacher, A. R. "Public Schools and Political Purposes," *Harvard Educational Review*, 8:179-90, March, 1938. A frank avowal of the obligation of the schools in the United States to indoctrinate for democracy.

Clark, Harold F. "What Economic Information Is of Most Worth?" *Teachers College Record*, 39:475-482, March, 1938. An exposition of the thesis that economic education in the schools must be divorced from traditional formalistic economic theory and center attention upon economics of everyday life.

Curti, Merle. "American Intellectual History in the Secondary Schools," *Teachers College Record*, 39:467-74, March, 1938. Reviews the scope of the field and suggests several approaches suitable for high school pupils. "In this rapidly developing field teachers should refuse to submit to patterns of organization imposed on them by 'authorities.'"

Davis, L. C. "Field Work in Geography," *Educational Method*, 17:293-96. Pupil mapping of local area and conditions, with attention to interpretation, comparison, and community cooperation.

Donnelly, Williams. "The Haymarket Riot in Secondary-School Textbooks," *Harvard Educational Review*, 8:205-16, March, 1938. An analysis of history texts, revealing a preponderance of bias and misstatement of fact with respect to the Haymarket Riot of 1886.

Eby, Kermit. "The History Teacher in an Age of Change," *Clearing House*, 12:405-08, March, 1938. "Teaching history in an age of transition demands knowledge, perspective, and vision. But the greatest of these is vision!"

Eddy, William Alfred. "Preparing for Citizenship in College," *Harvard Educational Review*, 8:217-27, March, 1938. Description of a required four-year sequence of social studies courses at Hobart and William Smith Colleges.

Eisen, Edna E. "Aerial Views—Aids to Geographical Study," *Educational Method*, 17:285-86, March, 1938.

Evans, Luther H. "Archives as Materials for the Teaching of History," *Indiana History Bulletin*, 15:130-153, February, 1938. An account of the current Historical Records Survey of the Works Progress Administration, by the National Director, with suggestions for school applications, especially in supplementing existing histories.

Gaus, John M. "The Civic Education of English Youth," *Education*, 58:405-10, March, 1938. Notes recent increase in emphasis upon civic instruction.

Gilland, Erna Grassmuck. "Some Trends in the New Geographic Education," *Educational Method*, 17:262-69, March, 1938. A consideration of geography as "the study, or science, of relationships primarily between man and the elements of his natural environment," with attention to teaching materials and procedures.

Gilland, Erna Grassmuck. "A Supervisory Procedure in Geographic Instruction," *Educational Method*, 17:297-300, March, 1938. Professional growth and cooperation; materials.

Gray, H. A. "Audio-Visual Learning Aids for the Primary Grades," *Elementary School Journal*, 38:509-17, March, 1938. A discussion of the values and uses of sound films in expanding experience and preventing misconceptions.

Harap, Henry. "Why Consumer Education?" *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 11:387-97, March, 1938. A forceful plea. "The slowness of the school in accepting greater responsibility for developing effective consumers is one phase of a larger and more fundamental difficulty—the failure of the school to educate for living."

Harden, Mary. "Opening the Way for an Understanding of Modern Problems," *Teachers College Record*, 39:506-20, March, 1938. Description of some procedures at the Horace Mann Elementary School.

Houston, V. M. "Improving the Quality of Classroom Questions and Questioning," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 24:17-28, January, 1938. The report of an experiment involving social studies teachers in two junior high schools of New York City, showing conclusively that questioning can be improved.

Hunt, Erling M. "We Need Better Social Studies Teachers," *Teachers College Record*, 39:459-66, March, 1938. Contends that improvement in teaching is handicapped by the failure of the profession to attract the most able individuals and by the lack of time and money—as well as teachers' will—for more effective growth in service.

Jessup, Grace F. "A Map for Diagnostic Purposes," *Journal of Geography*, 37:112-15, March, 1938. Reproduces and interprets a test of map-reading ability designed by a seventh-grade teacher.

Kehoe, R. J. "High School Travel Clubs," *Journal of Geography*, 37:109-11, March, 1938. Describes the varied activities carried on by a Chicago club.

Kercher, Leonard C. "Recent Studies of Sociology in the Public High Schools of Michigan," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 11:423-36, March, 1938. Reports questionnaire studies in 1931 and 1936.

Lord, F. E. "Diagnosing Study Difficulties in Elementary Geography," *Educational Method*, 17:273-77, March, 1938.

Mander, L. A. "Some Thoughts on the Teaching of International Relations," *Education*, 58:411-15, March, 1938. Objects that political science has overemphasized the national state.

Marshall, L. C. "Social Life and Problems of Scope and Sequence," *Curriculum Journal*, 9:165-69, April, 1938. Conditioning factors are said to be biological heritage and pupils' actual experience in group living.

Mendenhall, James E., and Wieting, Maurice C. "Consumer Education through the Curriculum," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 11:398-404, March, 1938. Commendation of new curriculum developments for attention given to consumer problems, with specific summary of needs and proposed procedures.

Michener, James A. "A Functional Social Studies Program," *Curriculum Journal*, 9:163-64, April, 1938. Description and interpretation of the courses of study at the Secondary School of the Colorado State College of Education.

Middlebrook, Pearl H. "The Place of Geography in American Culture," *Educational Method*, 17:277-84, March, 1938. The value of geography in developing breadth of view and a judicial mind.

Moseley, A. M. "Four Projects in Current History," *Clearing House*, 12:429-30, March, 1938. Brief descriptions of specific procedures utilized in a tenth-grade class.

Newlon, Jesse H. "Public Support for a Social Studies Program," *Teachers College Record*, 39:453-58, March, 1938. Urges the need for abler teachers, more enlightened administrators, and more freedom of teaching to win public support for realistic social studies.

Parker, Edith P. "The Technique of Error Diagnosis in Geographic Instruction," *Educational Method*, 17:269-72, March, 1938. Error prediction and diagnosis.

Raths, Louis E. "Evaluating the Program of a School," *Educational Research Bulletin*, 17:57-84, March 16, 1938. Intensive study of evaluation in one of the "thirty schools"—the private, coeducational Lakeshore School. Although the ten tests used were chosen to "measure . . . abilities which cut across courses of subject-matter," many of them hold interest for social studies teachers—notably those on social attitudes, the nature of proof, and the interpretation of social data.

Renner, George T. "Human Ecology—A New Social Science," *Teachers College Record*, 39:483-93, March, 1938. A survey and interpretation of the field, with the suggestion that it be given more attention in the schools.

Ross, W. A. "Consumer Education in Rural Areas," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 11:405-11, March, 1938. Pictures the farmer as being at a disadvantage so far as consumer buying is concerned; reports numerous aids given by Federal agencies; urges the responsibility of the schools.

Satlow, David I. "Some Sources of Instructional Materials in 'Education for Wise Consumption,'" *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 11:437-44, March, 1938. A well-annotated list of pamphlet and mimeographed materials available at little or no cost, with a list of courses of study.

Satlow, David I. "The Ever Growing Consumer Bookshelf," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 11:445-48, March, 1938. Reviews of seven recent books on the consumer.

Schreiter, Carl J. "A Course in Quantitative Thinking," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, 13:174-78, March, 1938. Although the course described is offered as a mathematics course for low-ability pupils, it is of especial interest to teachers of the social studies because most of the materials utilized are drawn for areas of social statistics dealing with such subjects as money, occupations, health, and the family.

Sletten, Cora. "Geography: A Promoter of Better Living," *Educational Method*, 17:259-61, March, 1938. The significance of tides, altitude, weather, time, space and maps, in everyday living.

Stewart, Alice. "Living in a Machine Age," *Teachers College Record*, 39:494-505, March, 1938. A report of how fourteen-year-olds at Lincoln School used their own community as a laboratory for studying social realities.

Stratton, George M. "An Introductory Course: The Pacific Solution of International Problems," *Journal of Higher Education*, 9:117-23, March, 1938. A course for college freshmen and sophomores.

Thomas, John B. "Consumer Buying in California Secondary Schools," *The School Review*, 46:191-95, March, 1938. A survey of practices and opinions in 196 schools.

Uzeffovich, Alexis M. "Cartographical Projections for Geographical Maps," *School Science and Mathematics*, 38:378-90, April, 1938. Most of the common projections are described, critically appraised, and illustrated with specimen maps.

Verner, Dorothy. "Opportunities for Incidental Language Teaching," *Elementary English Review*, 15:105-07, March, 1938. A research study based upon classroom observation in Grades III and IV. Noted numerous opportunities for teaching language usage in social studies and other classes, but found teachers failing to take advantage of them.

Weeks, O. Douglas. "The Aims of Civic Education," *Education*, 58:385-90, March, 1938. Schools should promote faith in "liberal democracy."

Williams, Norman. "Junior Democracy in the Nation's Schools," *Education*, 58:416-19, March, 1938. Cites specific examples of training in democracy through student self-government.

Zink, Norah E. "Aids from the Research Field [in Geography Teaching]," *Educational Method*, 17:301-05. Report of studies of vocabulary, testing, supervision, use of stereographs, and graphs, with a short list of interesting theses.

*Readers are invited to send in items for "Notes and News." Items for September should be sent in by August 1.*

Contributors to this issue include C. C. Barnes, R. W. Cordier, Joseph C. Driscoll, Harold Fields, Grace Frederick, Howard C. Hill, R. O. Hughes, J. N. Jordan, Grace Long, W. F. Murra, and E. B. Wesley.

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## BOOK REVIEWS

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**The Politics of Modern Spain.** By Frank E. Manuel. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938. Pp. xiii, 194. \$1.50.

This brief volume covers in lively style the story of Spain's political and economic development from 1914 to 1936. An introductory chapter reviews the main political events from Napoleonic times to 1914, and a short epilogue takes up a few aspects of the current civil war. The book is written with great understanding of Spain's problems and Spanish psychology, and with much humor. The tone is definite, sometimes opinionated, and the author's sympathies are obviously Leftist. The narrative is well documented, and the clash of the varied interests—clerical, military, industrial, intellectual, agrarian, and proletarian—runs like a clearly discernible thread throughout the entire study.

The body of the story begins with a description of the temporary prosperity which came to Spain as a neutral in the World War. After the war, Spain, like most other countries, experienced a slump; her industries, hastily and superficially developed in response to the wartime needs of the belligerents, were left in a perilous state in spite of the kingdom's resources and considerable, though latent, economic powers. The feudal outlook of the new industrialists, the grandiose Moroccan plans of the army "whose weapons were growing tarnished from disuse," and the irresponsible temperament of the "poseur" Alfonso XIII brought things to such a pass, says the author, that the king appointed Primo de Rivera dictator in a desperate effort to prolong his royal regime.

Rivera, more interested in sensual pleasures than in building a strong political party about him, succeeded only in alienating all classes of the population. After six years of unheroic

effort he went to Paris in disgrace (1930), leaving Alfonso to face the wrath and distrust of the politicians of both the Right and the Left. When, therefore, it appeared that the republican candidates were generally successful in the municipal elections of April, 1931, Alfonso fled "either to spare the blood of his people or to save his own royal head." The republic was proclaimed and personified in Premier Manuel Azana, "frustrated middle-class intellectual," hater of the monks who had educated him, underpaid ex-government-employee, student of literature and professor of law, and leader of the Republican Action Party. The new Republican-Moderate Socialist regime strove to "save Spain from the horrors of both revolution and reaction" by pursuing a strong centrist policy. As a result the radicals thought they saw "the shadow of Mussolini," while the conservatives saw only the Madrid government's "sour and bitter profile." Consequently the reforms from 1931 to 1933 served chiefly to further antagonism and to strengthen class consciousness.

But if conditions were unstable in this period, a "dismal interlude" was provided by the "jerky movements of Rightist fops and puppets" who were in power from the elections of November 1933 to those of February 1936. Just as during the first period moderates "had waxed fervent about the tempo of reform," so, during the second, "controversy was waged over the pace and character of reaction." The anger of the country's Leftists over this change was fed by evidences of widespread official corruption and by the example of the treatment of socialists by Hitler in Germany and Dollfuss in Austria. Gradually the leaders of the Left came to realize the value of a united front and the need, and by the time of the February, 1936, elections they offered the voters a People's Front. By this time, moreover, the Right parties

had come to suffer "the same internal disruption which had undermined" their opponents in November, 1933.

The chapter entitled "The Way of the People's Front" is especially interesting, since it is based upon notes taken by the author during interviews with leaders of all shades of political opinion. Its tone is indicated by the author's comments that "the People's Front came in like a lion; it soon found itself confined in a political cage whose bars, though rusty, still condemned it to pace up and down in impotent bewilderment. . . . From the very day of the February election up to the fateful eighteenth of July, a military rebellion was common table talk." Here Mr Manuel manifests unmistakable sympathy for the "unguarded reflection of one Spanish Leftist" who thought it might have been wise to shoot at once, regardless of world opinion, some of the leaders and generals known to be conspiring against the republic.

Moving too slowly to satisfy the radicals and too rapidly for the reactionaries, the People's Front soon found itself facing a "Fascist Counterattack" engineered primarily by landowners, industrialists (including Juan March, "capitalist friend of the Jesuits and former smuggler and grafter), Falangists (whom the author characterizes as "paid gangsters and students"), civil guards, "sulking generals," and republican turncoats such as Professor de Unamuno. The killing of Calvo Sotelo in retaliation for the murder of a republican shock-troop officer "provided the rebellion with a signal; forces which had been held in check for an autumn uprising were now unleashed."

Such is the story as unfolded by Mr Manuel. The book, as I have indicated, is intelligent, is sympathetic to what have now come to be called the "Loyalist" elements, and is well written. Whether or not one is in entire agreement with the author's viewpoints, this much is certain: no matter which side may win in the civil war, Spain has lost!

WALTER CONSUELO LANGSAM

Columbia University

**China at Work.** By Rudolph P. Hommel. New York: John Day. Pp. x, 366.

This is a first venture into a field in Chinese studies as yet untouched. Historical and philosophical studies in Chinese civilization there have been in impressive quantity, but of the

exact and concrete there has been so little as to be negligible. And out of generalizations, alone, no picture of a society can be formed.

What Mr Hommel has done is to present the raw materials that enter into the making of Chinese society, at least of pre-industrialized society. How do Chinese go about the activities essential to livelihood—till the soil, fish the waters, produce commodities of use? He gives the history, photographs, description, and measurements of tools used by the Chinese in their traditional processes and a detailed, almost step-to-step description of the processes themselves. The material is organized in five chapters: tools to make tools, tools for procuring food, tools for making clothing, tools for providing shelter, tools for enabling transport. From ploughing the soil and mining coal to cooking rice, caulking boats, and building temples there appears to be nothing omitted, and a careful reading should give a comprehensive idea of how Chinese deal with their material environment.

Mr Hommel devoted eight years of residence in China to collecting his material: a prodigious piece of work, carried out under difficulties that can be appreciated by those who have looked for precise data in China. It is an invaluable source book for workers in Chinese sociology.

NATHANIEL PEFFER

Columbia University

**When China Unites. An Interpretive History of the Chinese Revolution.** By Harry Gannes. New York: Knopf, 1937. Pp. 293, xiii. \$2.50.

Many accounts of China's struggle for unity lead the reader into a labyrinth of strange names and political machinations and there desert him, but Mr Gannes has a key to offer to the puzzle of the Chinese Republic's first quarter-century. He traces through this period the awakening of the Chinese proletariat to a sense of national unity and collective power. The book, released only two months after the outbreak of hostilities in North China, is a last word before the explosion. High spots of interpretation as well as of historic action are his accounts of the Red Trek and of the kidnapping of Chiang Kai-shek. In his thought-provoking epilogue, "China Faces the Future," he modestly summarizes the best available materials for prophets and statesmen and leaves

prediction to them. Such a document as the interview given by Mao Tse-tung, leader of the Red Army, to Mr Edgar Snow, in which the Red leader plans the course of Chinese resistance to Japan, takes on new meaning in the light of the first nine months of warfare.

Mr Gannes' interpretations will not be entirely acceptable to students of Chinese history. They will feel that other than "proletarian" forces have contributed materially to China's unification. Blanket classification of occidental diplomats as "the imperialists" is a distinct mark of bias. Routine dealings of diplomatic and consular agents with de facto authorities during the sudden extraconstitutional changes from 1922 to 1927 he characterizes as "approval" of the clique in control. He certainly has oversimplified the Opium War when he states that its history "is as simple as dastardly. The country was first doped and then shot into accepting early capitalist penetration." Such marks of bias should however be taken merely as warning signals against being carried away by an exceedingly well told and penetrating story.

HENRY C. FENN

Lincoln School  
Teachers College  
Columbia University

**Tales of a Chinese Grandmother.** By Frances Carpenter, with illustrations by Malthe Hasselriis. Garden City: Doubleday, Doran, 1937. Pp. xiv, 261. \$2.50.

This liberal sampling of Chinese folklore will be welcomed by teachers, particularly in the elementary and junior high schools. Here are excellent materials for introducing American children to Chinese ways of acting and thinking. Since the tales are drawn from Confucian, Taoist, and Buddhist traditions, they give to the adult mind an interesting picture of the comprehensive tolerance of the Chinese. Those interested in the comparative study of cultures will find a Chinese cosmogony in "How Pan Ku Made the World," worthy to be set beside the Greek and Babylonian stories. The tale of "The Spinning Maid and the Cowherd" is strongly reminiscent of American Indian legends of the Milky Way. Miss Carpenter shows a gift for story telling. Why then was it necessary to resurrect that old literary device of a decidedly artificial story-telling grandmother? Surely the modern child can take his

stories without such a sauce. And the stories themselves are good enough to stand on their own merits. Much is added to the appeal of the book by Mr Hasselriis' fascinating illustrations.

HENRY C. FENN

Lincoln School  
Teachers College  
Columbia University

**The Origins of the Foreign Policy of Woodrow Wilson.** By Harley Notter. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1937. Pp. vi, 695. \$4.50.

Based upon a diligent investigation of approximately all available sources, written with cautious discernment carefully footnoted, and provided with a useful bibliography, this volume is probably the best work that has appeared on the foreign policy of Woodrow Wilson down to April, 1917. Moreover, the book is a fine specimen of the printer's art and reflects credit on the Johns Hopkins Press.

After tracing fully the background of Wilson's political thought, with emphasis on the statesman's reflections on the foreign relations of the United States—a theme which occupies a third of this large volume—the author launches into a minute chronological consideration of the foreign policy of the great internationalist, noting carefully the influences which converged on Wilson's mind and emotions in each step that he took. The result is a narrative which is not light reading but as sound as one may hope to encounter.

The author shows conclusively that Wilson had formulated almost every phase of his foreign policy before he entered the White House; that he was rather ardent in his championship of democracy and of justice, according to his interpretations of justice; that, while he was not as pro-British as many of his advisers, he was by no means impartial; that he was not well grounded in international law; that he may not have been undisturbed by the specter of a German menace to the security of the United States; that he considered Germany more ruthless than her antagonists; that national economic considerations prevented him from pursuing a strictly neutral course and bringing Great Britain to book in respect to the rights of the United States; and that his early "strict accountability" note on the German submarine issue led inevitably to a crisis with Germany unless he could bring himself to swallow his pride and expose his party to grave political risks.

As described from time to time in this volume, Wilson's Latin-American policy was drastic. While renouncing imperialism he was often engaging in it, failing to observe the inconsistency between words and actions. His vision was blurred by enthusiasm for the orderly processes of constitutional democracy, and he may have been somewhat alarmed lest Germany obtain a base for naval operations in the Caribbean area. In respect to Haiti, the Dominican Republic, and Nicaragua, he seems to have permitted other subjects to crowd his mind so that he had no time to concentrate on these matters of such vital concern to the small countries involved, as well as to all Latin America.

To sum up the main theme of the book: Wilson was a crusader, although more cautious than many, with firm faith in the mission of his nation to cure the ills of the world and direct its people along the highway toward democracy and peace. His convictions and policies were rooted in his deeply religious background and in his study of the political history of the United States and Great Britain. The stern champion of what he deemed to be the great causes of humanity, he became the leader of the orderly democratic hosts of the Lord, willing to fight for democracy, peace, and world organization. In his earlier days he would have been disposed to use the powers of the national government in support of foreign trade; but unpleasant experiences at Princeton and as governor of New Jersey modified his attitude until he felt that such a policy would be equivalent to using the people's national instrument in behalf of special interests. Yet he did not abandon the conviction that national economic prosperity would be a source of power that could be employed to serve the right, or that such prosperity could be attained without losing one's soul. A rich nation, like a rich Presbyterian, might use its riches in the service of the Almighty.

J. FRED RIPPY

University of Chicago

**The Powers of the President: Problems of American Democracy.** By W. E. Binkley. Garden City: Doubleday, Doran, 1937. Pp. x, 332. \$2.50.

This is not a legalistic study of presidential powers, nor is it an attempt to describe those powers in detail or to determine their limits. Instead, it is a record of the contest for leader-

ship between the executive and the Congress. While the method is historical and objective, the author does show a definite bias in favor of the aggressive executive who regards his position as one of political leadership and asserts his will both as the head of the administration and as the moulder of legislative policy.

The book constitutes a well written account of the broad phases of the relations between the Presidents and the Congress. The men of the Constitutional Convention were seeking a solution of the question of the proper relation between the executive and legislative branches. Unconscious of the solution being worked out at that time in Great Britain, they nevertheless came close to providing for a "responsible" government when they voted no less than five times in favor of election of the executive by the legislature. While attempting to keep separate the legislative, executive, and judicial powers, the framers did not have so clear a conception of these terms as we now have. The plan adopted left open the determination of whether the executive or the legislature should provide national leadership. In support of the doctrine of executive expansion the author points out that the President does not merely take an oath to enforce the law but swears to "execute the office" of President, thus apparently acquiring an executive prerogative beyond any duties that may be assigned by Congress.

In the years of development Federalist policy preferred to place responsibility for political leadership upon the department heads operating in the open upon the floor of Congress, as had been the case under the Confederation. Unable to obtain the privilege of the floor for Hamilton, they turned to the caucus of their party and dominated Congress through this agency. The Jeffersonians attempted to function, first through the committee of the whole, and later through standing committees, but eventually adopted the Federalist device of a caucus. Following Jefferson, the Virginia dynasty and John Quincy Adams permitted control to fall to Congress, but Jackson restored the ascendancy to the President. Since the Civil War the Republican record has, in general, been one of opposition to aggressive Presidents. The story closes with the first term of Franklin D. Roosevelt.

The conclusion of the author is that government without executive leadership is at best a

fair-weather system, inadequate in a major crisis, and that the American people must hope for good luck in getting a competent leader when a crisis arises. Clearly this will leave us in an unfortunate position when a weak President and a crisis arrive together. No alternative plan is offered, except through the suggestion in the opening chapters that we narrowly missed one answer to the question of the proper relation between the executive and the legislature, when the way was not paved for a cabinet system.

W. REED WEST

George Washington University

**Lafayette Joins the American Army.** By Louis Gottschalk. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. xv, 364. \$3.00. Companion volume to the author's **Lafayette Comes to America**. Same publisher, 1935. \$2.00.

In spite of the fact that the impetuous young Frenchman has become, here and in France, a symbol for liberal causes and for republicanism, the book maintains that Lafayette was "not a republican when he came here; he was not a republican when he returned. In fact he was not even much of a liberal." The significance of his American Revolutionary service (June, 1777 to January, 1779) was not that he yearned to help the cause of human liberty, but that that experience "laid the foundation for the building of his future faith—liberalism." Charmingly written, the book develops and illustrates this thesis by skillful quotation and narration. Throughout the mass of material, carefully documented, the author presents with spirit and imagination a picture of the young adventurer actuated by a consuming, and successful, desire for personal glory and fame, and in doing this he has placed the famous figure in its proper setting against the background of American Revolutionary service. Also he has provided an interesting view of America in revolution. It is not in any sense a "debunking" biography, but it is a biography that reminds the reader of the essentially human aspects of history.

K. E. C.

**James Madison: Builder.** By Abbot Emerson Smith. New York: Wilson-Erickson, 1937. Pp. 366. \$4.00 (Publishers have transferred the books to Barnes & Noble, 105 Fifth Avenue, New York, and their price is \$2.98).

Teachers of American history and government will find this an interesting and stimulating account of the man and the part he played in the making of our Constitution and our government. The influence exerted by Madison on our history is not generally recognized. There are few public men who set so fine an example to youth. There is hardly a more encouraging example of the use of pure reason in dealing with constitutional development. He was obliged to use pure reason, for his health was so precarious and his body so weak that it was impossible for him to depend on any other driving power.

Returning to his home in Virginia from Princeton at twenty-two, he said that he expected a short and painful life. The patriot college president, John Witherspoon, must have exerted profound influence on his protege. Soon in the Virginia convention he was shaping the famous Virginia bill of rights. Spending three years in the Continental Congress, he left the best record of its character. In the Constitutional Convention he kept a record that is one of our most valued public documents, and through this record he was able to guide informal discussions of differences of opinion, shaping this opinion with masterful patience and enlightenment. Selected by Hamilton to help write the Federalist Papers, his arguments are now almost indistinguishable from those of his great colleague. Back to the Virginia convention on ratification, he fought a forensic battle with Patrick Henry that must have been a joy to those who value reason. John Marshall said of him, "Eloquence has been defined as the art of persuasion. If it includes convincing, Mr. Madison was the most eloquent man I ever heard." David's victory over Goliath was not so remarkable. Serving with distinction in Congress, he seems to have invented the idea "strict construction" which differentiated opposition to Hamilton from opposition to the constitution itself. In all his long life he used intelligence and honest argument to the limit. A skillful and scientific farmer, he was one of the few among his political contemporaries who died solvent.

Professor Smith tells the story with human interest, providing what is the best of the biographies of Madison for the general reader. Madison was not suited to be a war president. There was nothing exciting in his life except his

battle with Patrick Henry. But no one can read this biography without finding his respect for human nature rising and his confidence in democratic institutions and the rule of reason revived and strengthened.

EDGAR DAWSON

Hunter College

**Aaron Burr.** By Nathan Schachner. New York: Stokes, 1937. Pp. xii, 563. \$3.50.

As an entirely partisan, full-length account of the character and events in the life of Aaron Burr this book undertakes a complete defense of Burr's methods and motives. The importance of the new materials in the book has been overrated in the publishers' advertisements, and, whatever the actual meaning of the overworked phrase "definitive biography," it is not rightly applied by them to this book. Although convinced in advance of the truth of the contention that there is a great deal to be said in behalf of Aaron Burr and a great deal to be said in criticism of his enemies, this reviewer must nevertheless admit that the case is not here set forth in its most convincing terms. The partisan tone, the unwillingness to admit blame where blame is obviously due, the straining after dramatic effect, all militate against the reader's complete confidence in the whole presentation. The relegation of the footnotes to the end of the volume seems wholly unsuitable in a book based on controversial materials.

K. E. C.

**Steamboating on the Upper Mississippi—The Waterway to Iowa: Some River History.** By William J. Petersen. Iowa City: State Historical Society of Iowa, 1937. Pp. 576. \$3.50.

In forty-eight chapters Dr Petersen has set forth a colorful and little known aspect of Middle Western history. Eleven introductory chapters, brief in compass, tell the story of the rise of steamboating on the Hudson, the Ohio, the lower Mississippi, and the Missouri. From the twelfth chapter his narrative deals specifically with the Mississippi, north of St Louis. Here we see the use made of steamboats in carrying immigrants, lead, troops, furs, farm machinery, cereals, and various food supplies. Sanitary conditions, the daily routine, and other factors relating to travel by this means of transport are set forth in vivid fashion. It is surprising to discover the large number of boats that made

the runs, involving as they did serious accidents in considerable numbers; but the calamities failed to deter travel and transport. Although the style is not devoid of vigor and color, the story seems, at times, to lack the unity the subject implies. Certain unfortunate slips in grammar and trite phraseology occasionally mar the style. Too many dates and names (see top of p. 367) are given in such way as to lead to confusion in the thought of the paragraph. A reader questions why on the cover of the book one title appears, and another on the title page itself. The inclusion of the phrase "to Iowa" is somewhat misleading, because more than passage near Iowa is treated in the volume. Some maps, besides illustrations, would have added a visual character which is highly desirable in this type of historical narrative. In spite of minor points of criticism the book shows evidence of careful research and is a real contribution to the history of steamboating in the Middle West. Notes and references are excellently done, although no alphabetical bibliography helps the seeker of a short cut to materials. There is a good index.

BESSIE LOUISE PIERCE

University of Chicago

**A Continent Lost—A Civilization Won: Indian Land Tenure in America.** By J. P. Kinney. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1937. Pp. xvi, 366. \$4.00.

The title indicates the tone of the book—that it is first and last an apology for the method and the manner of westward expansion in this country, based on the avowed belief that enacted laws represent "the essential qualities of character and purpose of a social or political group" and that "the declarations of purposes and policies by public officials . . . are entitled . . . to a high degree of credence as representative of the sincere aspirations and honest convictions of such officials" (preface, pp. xi, xii).

K. E. C.

**Human Affairs: An Exposition of What Science Can Do for Man.** By J. B. S. Haldane, David Katz, A. S. J. Baster, E. Chambers, Lord Raglan, C. P. Blacker, Sir Henry Blackenbury, R. B. Cattell, M. Ginsberg, Havelock Ellis, B. Malinowski, E. Miller, K. Mannheim, Earl of Listowel, and W. McDougall. Ed by R. B. Cattell, J. Cohen, and R. M. W. Travers. London: Macmillan, 1937. Pp. xi, 360. \$4.25.

In spite of some hesitation in the introductory statement of its edition this humane and stimulating collection of essays is built on the platform "social scientists should rule." The book, as a whole, contends that "only by modelling social life after the pattern of scientific truths" (p. 17) can a peaceful and orderly regime be attained. Thus, every one of the contributors asks himself—more or less explicitly—what his field of specialization has to contribute to the coming and maintenance of "the age of spacious planning" (p. 143), and the results are indeed of a very high quality.

J. B. S. Haldane tells what the biological and medical sciences have to offer to human well being. David Katz analyzes the needs that must be satisfied by any social order and presents an interesting purview of the historical, international, and interclass variations in diet. Lord Raglan systematically rejects the possibility of deriving cultural characteristics from biological-racial traits. Two competent essays report on the legitimate scope of eugenics and on the development of public responsibility in questions of health. There is also an excellent survey of the role of industrial psychology in individual guidance in industrial productivity by E. Chambers. Morris Ginsberg thoughtfully lays out the main preoccupations of sociology as the synthesizing social science in a very clear cut but perhaps overly formal way. B. Malinowski in a scintillating and truculent essay, which is not always entirely exact in its formulations, demonstrates the indispensability of the comparative approach for relevant scientific work in the empirical social sciences. Karl Mannheim's uneven but original essay attempts to face the problem with which the whole book is confronted, namely, the reconciliation of comprehensive planning with a maximum of individual initiative and choice. It can scarcely be claimed that he arrives at a definite solution, but his problem is of the greatest importance, and his analysis should promote the further discussion of this central issue.

One of the major difficulties of the entire book, and especially of the more sociological portions, comes out however in R. B. Cattell's essay on "Education and the Sciences of Human Nature," which contains a very sharp critique of traditional educational practices from the viewpoint of modern psychology. This

difficulty consists in the failure of the authors to envisage in a more positive way the type of society they have in mind as the one in the building of which their sciences can aid. Their ideal society is negatively defined—it will not be militaristic, there will be no racial prejudice, there will be no hunger, no sexual or other personal maladjustment, disease will be diminished, there will be fewer "problem groups" and the like. The type of social organization requisite to the realization of all these desiderata is not specified, and only Professor Mannheim and Dr Baster in his essay on "Economic Planning" make some attempt to delineate it. (These strictures do not hold against Professors Haldane and Katz and Dr Blackenbury who are present more as special consultants than as direct constructors.) Dr Cattell's essay, in which this shortcoming is most evident, describes educational practices that are conducive to the formation of certain desired character traits but says nothing concrete about the society in which these traits are intended to function in a harmonious manner.

Concerning the measures by which the fruits of the social sciences can be transmuted into social well being, there seems to be but little consensus and that very vague. The editors feel that it should be diffused through a new periodical, which they hope to found and which will operate on public and legislative opinion as well as serve to educate social scientists to their potentialities and responsibilities. Dr Cattell in his individual statement gives much weight to the independent action of educators, and the Earl of Listowel makes an attractive plea for a body of legislators and public servants who are better educated in the social sciences.

These strictures are not intended as a denial of the genuine value of this book, both as a very readable survey of some significant phases of the social sciences and as a demand for an optimum of rationality in human affairs. But they are meant to direct attention to the general low level to which discussions about social reorganization, especially in its non-economic aspects, seem usually to fall as soon as positive, concrete statements are called for.

EDWARD A. SHILS

Teachers College  
Columbia University

**Social Thought from Lore to Science.** By  
Harry Elmer Barnes and Howard Becker

authors with the assistance of Emile Benoit-Smulyan and others. New York: Heath, 1938. Vol. I, Pp. xxiv, 790, lxxxiv. \$5.00. Vol. II, Pp. viii, 793-1179, lxxvii. \$4.50.

"Up from Shamanism" might well have been the title of this encyclopedic work tracing the evolution of sociological thinking. In the first volume the authors, after giving an account of the shibboleths and taboos of pre-literates, set forth something of the social philosophies of China, India, Egypt, Mesopotamia, Palestine, Greece, Rome, the Christian Fathers, and the thinkers of medieval and modern times. The second volume deals with contemporary sociological trends in Europe, America, and the Orient. In this part of the work the method of exposition changes, and the national or linguistic boundary defines the field. Modern sociological theories are thus considered in their respective cultural settings. Salient features are: an insistence upon the term "preliterate" rather than "primitive" as applied to men of a certain cultural status, a tendency to minimize the importance of the renaissance, and an emphasis upon the career of Ibn Khaldun, the fourteenth-century Berber philosopher of Tunis. With the faults probably inevitable to any book dealing with such a wealth of material over so long a time, it nevertheless provides an interesting and important survey.

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon Normal School  
Monmouth

**Mind in Transition.** By Joseph K. Hart. New York: Covici Friede, 1938. Pp. xii, 413. \$3.50.

This book undertakes a discussion of the world we live in and what it owes to worlds that no longer exist. Drawing materials from both pre-literate and literate stages of civilization, the author considers the heritages that contemporary man living in a largely urban culture has received from his history, especially from the ancient Orient, Greece, and Rome. Some of these heritages can doubtless still contribute to modern life; others modern man must rigorously discard, if he wants to liberate himself from some of the too persuasive patterns of the past. In spite of a decent and humanistic respect for this past and all it signifies, Dr Hart presents the cogent thesis that human beings living in our contemporary American culture must peel off many of the layers of custom that

surround and shackle their minds in order to discover satisfactory solutions to the pressing problems confronting them. Among the penetrating and incisive comments with which he enlightens the contemporary scene is his analysis of the problem of democracy. If modern man prefers order to chaos, and freedom to regimentation, he must choose one of three alternatives—drift, dictatorship, or democracy. Drift and dictatorship seem to us impossible, the former because it fails to provide the order necessary for science, the latter because it fails to provide the freedom necessary for the full development of the individual personality. The modern educator, therefore, has a significant task to perform. In seeing that children do not become "passive victims of obscurantism" and in keeping the intellect from being irrelevant, he must emphasize democracy in all of its applications, in politics and economics, in religion and science, in education and in the new social technology.

While some of his theses may be questioned—for example, that the Protestants in sixteenth-century Germany "discovered" humanity or that scientific mind is not patterned in a way peculiarly its own—all of them engage and stimulate the interest of the reader. Taking them in sum he has written a book to be read by alert teachers of the social studies as well as their more inquisitive students.

ROBERT BIERSTEDT

Columbia University

**Crime and the Community.** By Frank Tannenbaum. Boston: Ginn, 1938. Pp. xiv, 487. \$3.00.

**The Criminals We Deserve.** By Henry T. F. Rhodes. New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1937. Pp. xi, 257. \$2.50.

These studies, similar in analysis, progressive ideas, and humane appeal are indispensable to the teacher or student of the social studies who is interested in a large and revealing approach to the problems of contemporary life. Commissioner Thayer claims that "the average man in prison today was in the grade schools ten years ago and the man who will be in prison ten years hence is in the grade schools now." If education for productive citizenship is not remote from the functions of our secondary schools, the content of these books, viewed without alarm, must vitalize the classroom discussions, readings, and

activities of every purposeful social science program.

Both authors apparently consider that their organization and presentation may differ so long as the sociological viewpoint of crime causation and treatment is upheld by direct proof and the whole truth. Thus by clarifying crime in all its ramifications, while renouncing allegiance to partial theories of remedy and control, they have succeeded in converting a heretofore specialized topic into a comprehensive survey of our social order at large. It becomes the common concern of scholar, teacher, pupil, and layman.

The two authors, who know prisons and their population, civic agencies and their politicians, and democratic government and its perversions, hesitate to isolate crime from the social milieu of modern life, or to segregate the law breaker from his environment. These competent analysts do not perceive crime as the abnormal product of a bewitched nature and diseased glands, or as the reaction to pressure groups and dogmatic education, perhaps complicated by extreme emotional development, poverty, anti-social attitudes, public sanction, and bad associations. They see it as the natural response to all the forces and factors in life that create a relation between the individual and the whole society in which he lives.

To complement their thesis they hold that the malignant allies of crime today are political corruption, conflicting mores, inefficient governmental and penal administration, retarded legal and criminal processes, arbitrary supervision, subversive public loyalties, unbalanced values, materialistic ideals, and heterogeneous ethical codes. To supplement their exposition of crime and to motivate the reader's enthusiasm to learn more, the authors present case histories, private testimonies, personal evidence, excerpts from court reports and a judicious bibliography, each directly intended to prove a point. Without resort to sensational appeal they have dramatized our entire socio-economic framework, emphasizing its defective construction and consequent inability to deter its human element from criminal activity that translates might as right. It is an organic disorder, where the social expression of cooperative living refuses to keep pace with the inventive genius of industrial prosperity.

The first of these volumes concludes that "not

until the American community changes profoundly will the character and amount of crime in it change," while the second declares that "the profound changes that have taken place in our social institutions have altered the nature of modern crime, making it more serious to the new society." Such statements indicate that it is the institutions and mores that need be altered, if the realistic content of American life is to be akin to its democratic form.

There is a challenge for the teaching profession in these books. Can wholesale education in a democracy assist in creating a world community in which crime will be a rare, useless phenomenon? We must first define the purposes and objectives of American civilization as a consistent and uniform standard for behavior. Out of a national respect for the greatest good for the greatest number should evolve group integrity, community cooperation, equal opportunities, personal respect, and democracy in action. This will require social and economic planning to coordinate social wealth and business prosperity. From economic security there will emanate civic pride, cultural appreciation, and moral discipline.

EDGAR MCCORMICK

Yonkers High School  
Yonkers, New York

**The Marginal Man: A Study in Personality and Culture Conflict.** By Everett V. Stonequist. New York: Scribner, 1937. Pp. xviii, 228.

In a world in which complete and unreserved membership in some collectivity, be it nation, church, or party, is being demanded from all sides, it is certainly of some interest to consider those persons and groups who, for subjective or objective causes, have never been able to participate entirely in the culture in which they live. It is the merit of Professor Stonequist's book that it undertakes to do this, taking as its subject matter "the individuals of the subordinate or minority group whose social contacts have led them to become partially assimilated and psychologically identified with the dominant group without being fully accepted," who, in other words, are "on the margin of each society, partly in and partly out." The strength of the book does not rest on its attempted systematization of the subject but rather on the vivid portrayal of marginal situations and personalities. The theoretical basis

of the book derives largely from Georg Simmel, W. I. Thomas, and Robert E. Park.

The first half of the book is devoted to an exposition of marginal cultural situations, which are subdivided into those which are complicated by color factors and those which are purely cultural. Under the first, he surveys the Eurasians of India, the Cape Colonies of South Africa, the Mulattoes of the United States, the colored people of Jamaica, the Indo-Europeans of Java, the part Hawaiians and the Metis of Brazil. As a trained sociologist, the author naturally denies the significance of racial factors in marginal situations, though recognizing that "color" does play a role in heightening visibility and therewith intensifying self-consciousness of the purely cultural marginal situations, he reviews those of Europeanized Orientals, denationalized Europeans, Jews, and first and second generation immigrants and Negroes in the United States. The second set of cases, dealing as they do with better known situations, appear to be more sketchy and less informative than the cases of the racial hybrids, where some fascinating material is presented on the economic position and the social states and aspirations of the marginal peoples.

The second half of the book is given over to the personality of the marginally situated person and the way in which the "contrasts, tensions or conflicts of the two races or cultures" manifest themselves on the attitudes and life organization of the individual. The author, applying the concept of the "act" as worked out by Dewey and Mead, constructs a framework for studying the careers of marginal persons: "(1) a phase when he is not aware that the racial or national conflict embraces his own career; (2) a period when he consciously experiences this conflict; and (3) the more permanent adjustments or lack of adjustments which he makes or attempts to make to his situation." In the final stage the author envisages three main possibilities: returning to the original group and aggressively espousing its values, complete identification with and acceptance by the dominant group, and an intermediary role. There would seem to be other important types of response indicated by Professor Stonequist's material, such as rejected inward turning and assimilation into an acknowledged inferior position, but he does not

bring these into the discussion. The intermediary role which is of the greatest importance in modern economic and intellectual history and which is one of the best refutations of the fanatical claims of cultural self-sufficiency is unfortunately not elaborated with the detailed readiness that it deserves. The author emphasizes primarily the function of interpreting one culture to another and the promotion of mutual tolerance and understanding—a vital function to be sure. But a no less important function of marginality is the impulse which it gives to abstract thought and the capacity to view all cultures and human actions as falling within certain classifications that are constant and eternal. Only by becoming emancipated from one's original group and by escaping complete assimilation into the practices and mode of thought of the other, can we achieve the perspective which is necessary, if we are to avoid intellectual disaster.

EDWARD A. SHILS

**Attitudes Toward History.** By Kenneth Burke.

New York: New Republic, 1937. Vol. 1, Pp. viii, 226. \$1.00. Vol. 11, Pp. vi, 256. \$1.00.

This book eludes all of the familiar descriptive categories. It is at once philosophy, literature, literary criticism, sociology, a series of essays, and an annotated glossary. Its primary significance may perhaps best be expressed as a study of the symbolic structure of social action. It is a truism of course, that human beings find it possible to get along with one another only by inventing and using an enormous number of symbols. It is also a truism that these symbols operate retroactively in the sense that they persist after the stimulus which called them into being has disappeared, thus taking on a somewhat anomalous though none the less effective character. By means of a penetrating, though often abstruse, analysis of symbolic anomalies the author is able to make specific disclosures about their efficacy in society. Too often his hypotheses become themselves needlessly symbolic with the result that an otherwise respectable amount of erudition seems irrelevant and an otherwise respectable number of aphorisms lose their pungency.

The general thesis, however, may be illustrated by considering the part that the conflict of symbols plays in the processes of social change. Such conflict precedes change and often

postpones it because of the human tendency to employ "bridging devices." The word "liberty," for instance, used by a capitalist to justify his right to acquired property and by a socialist as his right not to become an instrument in the private acquisition of property, symbolically bridges the gulf between them. History knows no stability, custom, or status, however, which can guarantee the permanence of these symbolic bridges when the referents—that is the things to which the symbols refer—become openly and actively antithetical. Democracy, for example, may be such an unstable symbol at the present time. In the lexicons of both the Communist Party and the Liberty League it plays a leading role. It represents, paradoxically, a symbolic commonality of opposing groups. When, however, the conflict becomes so intense that it can serve only as symbol it will then lose its power to serve even as symbol.

In spite of a difficult vocabulary and a somewhat circuitous style this book will repay examination by teachers of the social studies. For Kenneth Burke is here taking the materials of the social studies and analyzing them with the tools of literary criticism. Recognizing the folly of discarding symbols altogether, he recommends retention of the "good" symbols, with taste and humor as the criteria of retention. Indeed, since contemporary men use frames of acceptance and rejection let the principal frame be the comic one—which is another way of remembering, with Dr Johnson, that history is a tragedy for those who feel and a comedy for those who think.

ROBERT BIERSTEDT

Columbia University

**Unemployment in the Learned Professions: An International Study of Occupational and Educational Planning.** By Walter M. Kotschnig. New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1937. Pp. xi, 347. \$3.50.

The democratization of educational opportunities has brought with it the "over-production of intellectuals" of which Professor Kotschnig has made the first scientific study in English language. He has covered the data, statistical, legal, and otherwise, of approximately twenty states, including the United States and excluding, among the major powers, only the USSR. Too much praise can not be

given to the author for the cautious and sober way in which he has assembled and digested the scattered materials and the lucid and dignified style in which he has presented his findings. He demonstrates the great absolute increase in college and university enrollments for twenty-seven countries from 1913 to 1934, as well as the striking increases in ratio of students to total population and the shifts in fields of specialization for a smaller number of countries. In another chapter he summarizes the data on the extensive unemployment and "overcrowding" in the professions in various countries.

Of equal importance is the sociological analysis that the book contains. First, we should mention the interpretation of the causes of the tremendous increase in enrollment in the higher schools. The author is quick to see the connection between the falling birth rate in western countries and the increased opportunities for college attendance that smaller families offer to members of the lower middle classes, from which the new influx has been largely drawn. His analysis of the way in which the development of capitalistic enterprise, with its emphasis on promotion, supervision, recording, and research, has increased the demand for college and university people is excellent, as are his remarks on the role of nationalistic policies, especially in central Europe, in the creation of a demand for a large teaching personnel for the inculcating of national ideals. The increased value of higher education as a claim to social esteem in a competitive open class society and as an increasingly important prerequisite for vocational opportunities in private and public employment are also adduced as significant factors.

He views the overcrowding of the higher schools and of the professions (a) as a threat to the future of science and scholarship owing to the overburdening of the teaching staff, the inadequate contact between professors and students, the poor quality of the training of a large number of the students, and the devaluation of learning by those whose devotion to it has ended in frustration; (b) as a threat to the stability of society since persons who have fixed their aspirations on a specific goal and are then prevented from attaining it through no ascertainable shortcomings of their own are very likely to be filled with a militant resentment against the institutions they hold responsible;

and sober digested and dignified findings. increase in twenty years as well as students to schools of special countries. data on overcrowded countries.

ological life should be seen in the rate in opportunities families classes, largely rich the with its ordering, for col- as are policies, nation of for the increased sociality and site for public significant

higher threat owing off, the and stu- large nation of it has to the fixed then ascer- very ement possible;

and (c) as a catastrophe to the student and professional person who has invested so many years of work and sacrifice in preparation for a career he can follow only with great difficulty and sometimes not at all.

The author discusses in the second half of the book the measures that have been taken to alleviate the stress. Such measures as stricter examinations, the raising of fees and the lengthening of courses are recognized as being capable of limiting the number of persons admitted to universities and colleges but they entail so many risks of being prejudicial to a satisfactory recruitment of scientists, professionals, public servants, etc., that Professor Kotschnig looks in another direction for a solution. The various methods for improving conditions among those who have already graduated, such as exclusion of foreigners, of citizens of specific racial and religious affiliations, and of women, and also the raising of standards (to exclude those less well qualified or lacking in degrees) also meet, as is to be expected, with the author's disapproval, the latter because it involves the danger of attracting even more students to the universities in order to obtain the newly required qualifications. The prohibition of multiple employment and the lowering of the retiring age he regards more sympathetically, although he is skeptical of the practicability of the former and somewhat ambiguous towards the latter. He approves of work relief for professionals, and his survey of this subject is very informative.

This book contains no dogmatic answers to the problems confronting educators and social scientists today. It does not even attempt to work out a tentative solution in all possible detail. It is rather a work of illumination, warning and counsel, which should be read and pondered by everyone interested in the destiny of the coming generation and the trends in modern society.

EDWARD A. SHILS

Teachers College  
Columbia University

**Training in Democracy: The New Schools of Czechoslovakia.** By Francis H. Stuerm. Published under the auspices of the Progressive Education Association. New York: Inor Pub. Co., 1938. Pp. xiii, 256. \$2.50.

With the eyes of the world following the political fate of Central Europe, particularly

Czechoslovakia, it is indeed surprising that so little has been written concerning an important element of the Czech national life—the educational system. In part this lack has been due, without doubt, to the fact that the Czechs have been so busy determining the course of their national educational system that there has been no time to write about it. Moreover very few Americans have had the background of language and the familiarity with life and customs that would enable them to write about its school system. In any case it is fortunate that at last we have the story of the Czech schools written by one whose knowledge of the Czech life, language, and leaders has extended over many years and drawn from intensive observation during the winter of 1934-35. Since that was after a period of liberalizations, the schools, as portrayed in this book, are organized under a liberalized system but with a thoroughly centralized control. It was from America that the leaders drew many of their basic educational principles; and their development may have much to offer to us in turn.

While there is much interesting and informative material in the book, a few high lights stand out here and there. For example, there is the discussion of the way in which the teacher may originate a new method, an oddity in most centralized systems. There is also the problem of minority rights to be considered in the matter of the language. Then again, one feels that the American public would shy from religious teachings in the schools (given in the Czech schools if parents do not object). Even in this book one sees the emphasis on the ever present danger of war. Physical education, science, geography, and history bear evidences of it. The economic position of the Czech teacher is another of those points of peculiar interest. The old cry, echoed so often here, that teachers are so economically handicapped that raising a family is next to impossible, may have been answered in Czechoslovakia by granting an "educational allowance" for children of teachers during the children's school years and a "maintenance allowance" from birth to majority.

MORRIS L. SHAFER

New York University

**An Integrated Curriculum in Practice.** By Edison Ellsworth Oberholtzer. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College,

**Columbia University (Contributions to Education, No. 694), 1937. Pp. xv, 218. \$2.35.**

"In constructing the integrated curriculum, the organizing determinants are derived from an interpretation of life needs rather than from fixed subjects to be learned. . . . If as adults they will be expected to solve problems or grapple with perplexing situations, using the information they acquired in school, the students should be given the opportunity to attack these problems in school, perhaps in simpler form."

The Houston experiment, as reported in the book under review, seems to be based solidly on the educational philosophy implied in the quotation above. Planning a curriculum to affect the elementary and junior high school levels, this report deals specifically with procedures in the fourth and fifth grades. Seventy-three teachers and approximately two thousand pupils were involved, some in control groups, the majority in experimental classes.

The first step toward preparation for the integrated curriculum was to install a fusion course in social studies for the purpose of bridging some of the gaps caused by rigid divisions in a curriculum of separate subjects and to give some flexibility to the daily program. Teachers were then encouraged to move from this intermediary step toward units of work in which subject-matter lines would disappear altogether. Central themes or "big ideas" were selected and allocated to the various grade levels, and from these teaching units were drawn.

This leads to the one serious criticism which this reviewer would make. All, or most, of the themes deal with major economic, social, or political problem-areas. It is not made clear at all that any of the immediate, personal-social problems of the students are considered as curricular materials even as the focal points of entry for the pre-determined problem-areas. The technique of problem-solving can best be developed in pupils when the problems used are those with which the students can identify themselves.

The report points to these conclusions as the results of the experiment:

1. It is possible through the use of the integrated curriculum taught by the activity method to maintain as high a standard of achievement in fundamental skills as is maintained when these skills are taught through

formally organized subjects with fixed time schedule and more time devoted to drill.

2. The integrated curriculum taught by the activity method allows more time for enriched education, more time to be devoted to problem-solving type of activities, and more time to the development of creative expression.

3. Teachers are influenced by the philosophy of teaching and the kind of method they use.

4. Pupils in the experimental groups achieved as well as those in the control group—and even better—when measured by gain in educational age over a period of one year.

5. The achievement of pupils of the experimental group, when taught by teachers rated in the highest quarter, definitely surpasses that of the control group taught by teachers of the highest quarter.

6. Pupils of the experimental groups acquired more factual information from the use of the integrated curriculum taught by the activity method than did pupils of the control groups taught by subjects.

7. The use of the integrated units results in more learning than does the use of the regular social studies units, even though the method used is the same.

8. Pupils of the experimental groups in which the integrated curriculum and the activity method of teaching were used read more general literature than did pupils of the control group taught by subjects.

9. Pupils in the experimental groups achieve in handwriting or maintain their standard of handwriting as well as the pupils in the control group, even though the control group spent a greater amount of time on skill activities.

10. A comparison of pupils in the experimental groups of the high fifth grade with other pupils of the entire high fifth grade enrollment of the city shows that the pupils of the experimental groups achieve as much in reading, spelling, and arithmetic.

11. The integrated curriculum taught by the activity method tends to stimulate greater interest and enthusiasm in the children for their school work, and to provide more opportunities for growth and development in initiative, self-reliance, and creative endeavor.

12. The interests of pupils tend to change as they are given more freedom for participation in activities, as provided in the integrated curriculum.

Pupils' interests in the experimental groups seem to increase more than those in the control group, especially in their desire to participate in such activities as sewing, cooking, shop work, and in activities involving leadership. Particularly, it seems that even scholastic interests increase as pupils become more directly involved in integrated activities related to the larger or more comprehensive subject-matter fields.

S. P. McCUTCHEON

Ohio State University

**American Agricultural Problems in the Social Studies.** By Kenneth E. Oberholtzer. New York: Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1937. Pp. v, 119. \$1.60.

This study bears the subtitle "Some Important Agricultural Problems and Related Generalizations That Should Be Considered in the General Curriculum of Urban and Rural

Schools" and presents material on a timely topic. It includes an enumeration of the more important social, political, and economic problems in this field. Particular emphasis is given to the economic side, with careful consideration of such topics as land utilization, production, distribution, prices, and credit and income. In connection with each problem studied, a related generalization is given with the view towards the problem's possible solution. It concludes with a sample course of study unit on land utilization, as a means of organizing subject matter and pupil experiences for classroom work. Throughout the book, current magazines, books, and federal reports are indicated as sources of information, and the full bibliography at the end of the work offers a comprehensive picture of recent writings on American agriculture. For the curriculum maker in courses on the problems of American democracy, this volume provides real assistance.

HAROLD F. WILSON

State Teachers College  
Glassboro, New Jersey

**A Guide to the Study of the Negro in American History.** By Merl R. Eppse. Nashville, Tennessee: National Educational Pub., 1937. Pp. viii, 115. \$2.00.

Although the author has attempted to use the unit type of organization, in reality he has developed the *Guide* in accordance with the traditional plan of chronological topics. Such an arrangement is not as meaningful as one centered around problems the solutions of which have wrought significant changes in the life of the Negro and the nation. Each of the twelve units, presented in outline form, is introduced by a preview and followed by questions and bibliography. Instead of depicting the conditions of the time in order that the past may appear real to the student, the previews present either factual material or propagandist statements.

A careful examination reveals several inconsistencies and some awkwardness. The captions appearing in the body of the volume for Units I, II, III, IV, and VI differ from those listed in the table of contents. Considerable irregularity is evidenced in the use of dates as portions of headings. A fundamental principle of outlining is violated in Unit V in that subtopic VI has the same heading as the general topic, namely, "The Negro during the Critical Period

1783-1789." The heading for Unit VI "Washington to Lincoln's Administration—1789-1860" is particularly clumsy. Faulty parallelism is also noted in the outline, and the topics are expressed in words and phrases in spite of the fact that, for a work of this kind, the sentence outline is perhaps preferable.

Much of the distinctive quality of the work is lost by including too many details of American history in general. Over one hundred of the one hundred and twenty-eight questions are factual rather than thought-provoking. Only one is a summary question, and that one does not relate to the Negro; nine ask "how" or "why"; and twelve are of the crystallized judgment type. Owing to the horizontal arrangement of the bibliographies the reader is greatly inconvenienced. The references not only lack classification into original sources, secondary works, biographies, periodicals, etc., but in many instances the standardized information is incomplete.

In the Foreword the author says: "This guide is . . . a manual suggesting various sources and activities by which the history of the Negro may become a more vivid and worthwhile subject for study in schools on the high school and college level. Its primary purpose is to suggest ways and means of making American history more meaningful to students by relating it more closely to the problems and policies of the American life as it really is today." The word "sources" is used rather loosely here, and the "activities" suggested for four of the twelve units—II, III, V, and VI—are hardly stimulating enough to make "the history of the Negro a more vivid subject for study." In order, too, for a *Guide* to function at both the secondary and college level much of the material must be differentiated. The primary purpose, as stated, is more suitable for *A Guide to the Study of Contemporary Problems in American History*. It is the hope of this reviewer that before the *Guide* is formally printed it will be revised carefully. Not only are there many errors in mechanics, such as spelling and punctuation, but also inadequacies of style and organization. Grouping the information around large movements leads to more careful selection and greater accuracy of detail.

For those who are unacquainted with the large body of material on the Negro, Mr Eppse has revealed its possibilities, and for those who

are particularly interested in the study of the Negro he has shown the desirability of definitely organizing this material for teaching purposes. Herein lies his contribution.

SADIE I. DANIEL

Miner Teachers College  
Washington, D. C.

**Problems in American Democracy.** By S. Howard Patterson, A. W. Selwyn Little, and Henry Reed Burch. New York: Macmillan, 1938. Pp. ix, 726. \$1.88.

Secondary schools have far too many poor students. Curricula are being revamped to suit their needs, and teachers are readjusting their methods to meet the new demands. Textbook writers, too, have succumbed to the mass mind by producing books simple in text and profuse in illustration. This book, as an exception to that trend, is, therefore, welcome to the teacher of better students and to those teachers who believe a textbook should stimulate growth instead of molly-coddling students with elementary school English and kindergarten picture book technique. Its content is heavy but readable. The first section treats the basic social forces in American life, the physiographic features, the social organizations and institutions, and the biological factors. The second section deals with the economic aspects of American life, production, exchange, distribution, consumption, and conservation and reclamation. This is the most difficult and the longest part— to the reviewer an undue emphasis. The third division discusses the social aspects, social security, human conservation, organizations, and institutions. The last pages are devoted to the political phases of life, local, state, and federal governments, finance, and propaganda and public opinion. The treatment of these topics presupposes students of good ability. Particularly is this true in the use of such terms as "social surplus," "culture lag," and "frame of reference," and in the sections dealing with economics. The style is precise and clear. The approach is thorough but not too "scholarly." The summaries at the end of each chapter are excellent. The cover is attractive and the type quite readable. Bias is absent. Frequent allusions to the works of Tennyson, Byron, Dickens, Scott, and others add a welcome literary flavor to the text.

If anything, the book is too advanced; at times it resembles a college text. The supple-

mentary readings are most difficult. Part of the blame for this fact rests with the choices made by the authors; the rest is excusable on the grounds that such materials are not available in the language of secondary school students. It is completely devoid of illustrations except for very poor cartoons and charts drawn specifically for this volume.

It should fill a real need in twelfth grade problems of democracy courses.

LEONARD S. KENWORTHY

Brunswick School  
Greenwich, Connecticut

**Problems and Values of Today.** By Eugene Hilton. Vol. I. Boston: Little Brown, 1938. Pp. xviii, 639. \$1.60.

This book and the second volume (to be published shortly), by a former supervisor of social studies in the Oakland public schools, are the result of an effort to determine an up-to-date and valid basis for the study of some of the most important problems and values of our day. The one major objective that has dominated the selection of the ten units (really only eight units since the first two so-called units concern orientation of the pupil and appraisal of the sources of information) is the "need for an alert and intelligent electorate for the effective functioning of our democracy" (p. ix). The material in these units has been drawn from history, economics, civics, and sociology. An examination of the table of contents reveals the following units: (1) The Organization of Government (2) Suffrage: Its Organization and Power (3) Challenges to Democratic Government, Health, and Safety (5) Wealth: Its Acquisition and Use (6) Money Management and Consumer Problems (7) Spiritual Values in American Life (8) Relation of the United States to Other Nations.

In many respects this volume, in the opinion of the reviewer, is an excellent answer to the desire of certain educational philosophers for the more modernized and "functional social studies curriculum." The author believes that the emphasis should be placed upon a study of the present and the future, rather than the past, so that the student is trained to act as a "participant in what is and is helped to look ahead and plan to improve what is to be" (p. ix). If we accept the statement that in general education the objective is "to make the world more intelligible," it seems that a systematic study

of history and a systematic study of the world as it now exists, and future implications, are all necessary. Neither can attain its objective without the other. Here lies the chief weakness of the book. The teacher will have to utilize the valuable contributions of history by introducing this background himself, or by making special assignments. This deficiency of adequate historical background will become more serious, if schools decide to eliminate such courses of study as American history, economics, civics, and perhaps sociology, and replace them with a two-volume fusion course.

The book contains several unusual and valuable features. Each unit has an outline, objectives of the unit, summary, and exceptionally good bibliographies. Quotations, most of which are carefully selected and many quite long, are liberally used on nearly every page—thus eliminating footnotes. However, in the light of recent events, one could wish that the author might have been a crystal-gazer to the extent of omitting the wisdom of Richard Whitney on the soundness of the laissez faire theory (pp. 352-53). Each unit has, on the average, over sixty exercises, quite carefully chosen and interspersed throughout the chapter or unit. The emphasis placed on the proper use of words like communism, dictatorship, and so on (p. 241) would delight Stuart Chase. Unit II, "Appraising Our Sources of Information," is extremely valuable in this day and age of propaganda. After a survey of the value of free speech and press, the importance of printed matter such as books, periodicals, newspapers, as well as speeches, lectures, radio, and moving pictures, are taken up in detail. The objective of this unit is to encourage the development of a critical and scientific viewpoint in regard to sources and reliability of information, origins of public opinions, and the part played by propaganda and advertising. Charts are conspicuous by their absence. The Ruth Taylor illustrations are refreshing and appropriate.

ARCHIE W. TROELSTRUP

New Trier Township High School  
Winnetka, Illinois

**Personal and Social Adjustment. A Text in Social Science.** By Willis L. Uhl and Francis F. Powers. New York: Macmillan, 1938. Pp. xi, 475. \$1.40.

This book seems worth attention because of

its sound and rational attack upon aspects of social studies which have been treated by individual teachers but not generally given a place in the curriculum. The emphasis upon the student as an individual and his place as a unique being in society raises the publication out of the clutter of "sweetness and light" literature that has been prevalent in the attempt to socialize the child in the secondary schools. While some evidence of this attitude is present, the book makes an honest effort to present its material in a practical manner.

There is some doubt as to the grade level at which this work will best be used. The illustrations appear definitely aimed at a placement not higher than grade nine. Chapters v, vi, and vii contain material that would make excellent units for grade twelve. The "study habit" chapters, viii, ix, and x, are applicable throughout the junior and senior high school. From a personal viewpoint the book would seem best placed in the social studies field not lower than grade nine nor above grade eleven. It furnishes an admirable supplement to textbooks in sociology, economics, and civics, and, where a course in elementary psychology is taught, it should prove valuable either as collateral reading or as a foundation text. Its use as a text will of course depend upon the curriculum of schools in various localities. Certain untenable assumptions and inferences in the book, though, may be mentioned here: that any classroom teacher can give and interpret psychological measurements (page 130); that student "self analysis" is a sound and valid procedure (p. 131); and that a high school student can correctly diagnose the intensity and permanence of an occupational interest (p. 130). Also too little emphasis is given to drugs (pp. 393-96). The treatment accorded tobacco is somewhat inconsistent, and although the use of drugs belonging to the hemp family is a serious problem in this country, there is no specific mention of it. Nevertheless the volume should be well received.

MILTON E. HAHN

Public Schools  
St Paul, Minnesota

**The Growth of the American Republic.** By Samuel Eliot Morison and Henry Steele Commager. Rev. and enl. ed. New York: Oxford Univ. press, 1937. Vol. 1, pp. 702. Vol. 2, pp. 695. \$3.00 each.

This edition not only adds an account of the period since the first edition of 1930 but adds other new information. The work includes the Roosevelt campaign for the presidency in 1936 and contains some discussion and appraisal of the New Deal philosophy and plans. Beginning with conditions following the Peace of Paris in 1783, the story of the British colonies of the Atlantic seaboard is traced in the usual rather conventional manner. Following quite closely the trend of political events the discussion, however, weaves in the too often neglected social and economic aspects of the development of the colonies. Through the Revolutionary War, the formation of the Confederation, and the framing of the Constitution, the narrative continues, following through the presidential periods in chronological order. The first volume concludes with the end of the Civil War. The second volume takes up the story of Reconstruction and carries the material well up to date. Although the arrangement of the books is in the usual manner, dictated perhaps by the aim of the authors to present a usable textbook, the presentation of the material is far from being stereotyped. Especially commendable is the incorporation of the relation of European affairs to the colonies. The isolationist idea of an America developing independently of events across the Atlantic is quite dispelled by the interrelation of Europe and America that is constantly shown. Analysis of European leaders such as George Grenville (I, 24), of the place and aims of Charles Townshend (I, 33), and the explanation of the working bloc system of the British ministry (I, 14) illustrate how well circumstances in Europe figure in colonial changes. Nor is this viewpoint confined to colonial days; throughout the manual the happenings abroad that concern the United States are pointed out. Since both the authors are excellent stylists it is to be expected that the volumes are very well written, and yet it is pleasing to find clear analyses of situations and comparisons that are tellingly written (for instance, I, 165, of the federal convention, and II, 445-46). Wise, too, is the caution manifest in many places, where the causes of wars and other crises have not been unduly simplified, as has been done by many former writers. These matters receive the consideration that shows clearly how underlying causes of many events are not agreed upon by scholars. The short con-

cise summaries that frequently conclude sections of the discussion are to the point and should prove of material value to the student.

In spite of the well rounded and full account of the events of *The Growth of the American Republic*, one wishes for a less conventional approach to the history of those parts of the present United States that did not begin as British colonies. French and Spanish culture were paramount in the development of certain parts of the country, and the usual manual incorporates those sections into the geographical extent of the American state with very little, if any, consideration of the background so different from the regions of British colonial tradition. In their history before annexation Florida, Louisiana, the Spanish Southwest, and the Pacific area, all present problems and interests which this excellent manual has failed to consider duly. The inclusion of full names or initials of less important people, such as "speculators Cruger and Duane" (I, 60), would aid the younger student materially.

Especially to be commended is the fine bibliography, the analysis and scope of each chapter in the table of contents, and the assignment of sources for the maps used throughout. Why several maps do not, however, have this information is not explained (I, 634; same map, II frontispiece; II, 263; and II, 521). On the whole the new text is welcomed as an admirable addition to the manuals on American history.

DOROTHY WOODWARD

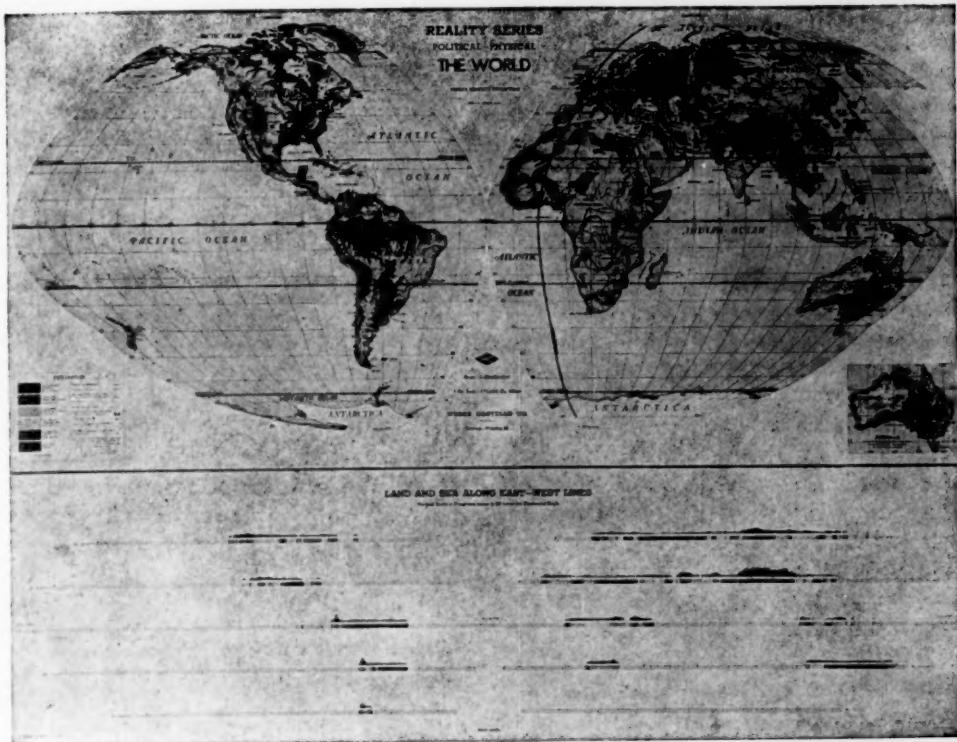
University of New Mexico

**The United States in the Making.** By Leon H. Canfield, Howard B. Wilder, Frederic L. Paxson, E. Merton Coulter, and Nelson P. Mead. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1937. Pp. ix, 842, xxvi. \$2.20.

The eight "units" of this volume deal with colonization and revolution; the establishment of a democratic nation; economic life and culture in the middle period; expansion, slavery, and the Civil War (referred to as "The War Between the States"); our changing social and cultural outlook since 1865; and parties and politics since the Civil War. Thus the material before 1865 is treated in a strictly chronological arrangement, while that since the Civil War is arranged in broad topics.

It should be noted that the eight divisions

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of the book are not in reality units. For example, Unit 1, "In which England builds up a mighty empire only to see her American colonies successfully revolt," covers such varied ground as European expansion, the rivalry of European powers for America, colonial economics, politics, and culture, and the American Revolution. The central understanding, about which the contents of a unit should revolve, is absent. An example of even more faulty unit construction is seen in Unit IV, "In which the nation expands, is rent by civil strife, but is finally united." This "unit" consists merely of a survey of territorial expansion and the slavery issue in the two decades before the Civil War.

It is undoubtedly true, as the authors say, that "The new nation, emerging within the federal frame after the Civil War, has been concerned with intricate problems of a sort and on a scale not to be compared with those before the war" (p. 11). With the relatively greater importance of the period after the Civil War thus indicated, to this reviewer it seems too bad that texts, including the present volume, persist in devoting half or more of their pages to the period before 1865. In view of the ever-increasing demand for emphasis upon the more recent aspects of American history and the desirability of deepening and enriching its study, the teacher is harassed with the problems of crowding a growing body of material into a constant time allowance. Textbook writers could render worthy service by taking the lead in minimizing the detail of the pre-Civil War period.

Although the social and economic phases of our history are well emphasized, and approximately 120 pages are devoted to American cultural development, one begrudges the seventy-five pages which are, in this writer's mind, wasted on the military aspects of American wars.

In spite of the fact that Professor Lybyer exploded it a number of years ago, the error still persists that the Ottoman Turks hastened the discovery of America by endangering the commerce of the eastern Mediterranean (pp. 7, 9). The sixteenth century was well begun before the menace of the Turk was felt by Italian merchants. The real threat to the commerce of the eastern trade routes came from the rivalry of the coastal cities of western Europe.

Had farming been the occupation of three-

fourths of the colonists of New France (p. 18), the British might have faced an entirely different problem in dislodging French power in North America, and the history of the continent might have been altered. That "the common-store system discouraged individual initiative and ambition [in Jamestown]" (p. 31) is questionable. It was probably this cooperative system which enabled the disappointed gold-seeking adventurers to survive the "starving time." William and Mary ascended the throne in 1689 (p. 21). The Boston *Centinel* referred to Monroe's administration as the "era of good feeling," not the "era of good feelings" (p. 249).

The volume is distinguished by a detailed thoroughness uncommon in high school texts. Teachers in schools where inadequate library facilities require reliance upon a single text will find this one sufficiently comprehensive. The units are preceded by stimulating overviews. The questions which introduce each chapter, directing attention to its contents, provide a valuable means of motivation. References for further reading and suggestions for pupil activity are plentiful and adequate.

RUSSELL FRASER

High School  
East Orange, N. Y.

**A History of England.** By W. Freeman Galpin. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1938. Pp. xvi, 843. \$5.75.

In his preface the author proclaims his purpose to be "to write a history of England for American students" with "no attempt . . . to include all of the personalities or events that may be of peculiar significance to Englishmen." Thus "the needs of the American student" become the criterion of selection and discussion of material. Is historical truth a question of nationality or of students? Are events made by students or must students be urged to try to understand the complexity of events?

The question arises whether the American student, uninformed on the subject of his English heritage, would become informed or misinformed from a study of this text. In an endeavor to avoid cumbersome details of political and economic history, hardly a foundation stone remains on which the student may form his own opinion. Confusions, contradictions, misinterpretations are bound to follow vagueness of approach, where inadequate attention is given to the interplay of the various forces of

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domestic and foreign politics, of economic interests, and of personal ambitions. The transition to a wool-growing economy, with export of raw wool to the Low Countries for manufacturing, is closely bound up with the politics of the day, the Hundred Years War, and the relation of the Count of Flanders to the King of France; but the author completely ignores the political element. He suddenly describes woolens as being manufactured in England with artisans imported to do the job, and capitalist clothiers the outcome. Innumerable examples might be cited of the failure to give the picture as a whole, and, thus, though the pieces may be correct in themselves, an untrue picture will all too probably develop in the student's mind—provided anything further than memorization results.

The text throughout tends to make generalized statements without reference to a source of authority other than the author's own interpretation. Of the different aspects of English history treated, however, the constitutional receives the clearest exposition, especially such subjects as Magna Carta, as a document, and the seventeenth-century conflict between Stuarts and Parliament.

Such terms as "nationalism," "industrial revolution," "sky-rocketing" prices, "capitalism," are employed indiscriminately in relation to fifteenth- sixteenth- seventeenth- or twentieth-century activities. Although the spirit of nationality may be said to have been asserting itself, especially in sixteenth-century England, it was by no means nationalism in the modern or post-French-Revolutionary sense that stirred in patriotic English breasts when Elizabethan seadogs, piratically appropriating Spanish treasure ships, turned to the government of the Queen, who shared the spoils, to fight Roman Catholic Spain and save Englishmen from foreign domination. What were the ingredients that went to make up loyalty to England—or was it to Elizabeth?

The format of the book is attractive with cheerful binding and clear print. There are the usual genealogical tables, illustrations, a few maps, an extensive index, a list of prime ministers, and, rather unusually, a list of the parliaments of the United Kingdom from January, 1801.

AVALINE FOLSOM

State Teachers College  
Montclair, New Jersey

**Macmillan's Modern Dictionary.** Comp. and ed under the supervision of Bruce Overton, New York: Macmillan, 1938. Pp. xiii, 1466. \$3.00; thumb-indexed \$3.50.

As a workaday dictionary of some 100,000 words this is especially adapted to the needs of social studies teachers on account of the inclusion, all in the one main vocabulary, of biographical and geographical names of current importance and of such necessary foreign words as fascist, nazi, duce, führer or fuehrer (both spellings are given here although even the big *Webster's New International* found neither within its scope). Teachers of all disciplines may find useful the definition and explanation of phrases and idiomatic expressions, which constitute one source of the strength and beauty of our language. Sometimes, this reviewer thinks, this kind of idiom tends to disappear from the vocabulary of teachers partly on account of confusion as to its possible relation to slang. The result is unfortunate, and it is to be hoped that the arrangement of this dictionary may be useful in arresting the tendency.

The decisions of this dictionary lean toward the changed and changing forms of written and spoken language; most hyphens have disappeared as have many dieresis; and recognition has been given to the influence of the recessive English accent that has brought us such pronunciations, still deplored by many of us, as ad'ult, although the similar and probably equally inevitable ad'dress and al'ly find themselves still outside the accepted circle. The paper is good, thin but strong; the type is clear and beautiful; and the spacing and arrangement of the material on the page is excellent. For those wholly addicted to the dictionary habit nothing can take the place of the larger or even the largest dictionary. Yet everyone needs a handy dictionary for constant use between times, and this volume very well serves the purpose.

K. E. C.

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